Public Expenditure Tracking Survey (PETS) and Quantitative Service Delivery Survey (QSDS)

The Education Sector

By

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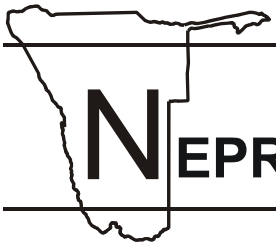

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Disclaimer

Though a large number of people contributed to this study only the authors bear full responsibility for any inaccuracies of this report. Any opinions in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the opinions of the World Bank or of the Government of the Republic of Namibia.

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List of abbreviations

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIGCSE	Higher International General Certificate of Secondary Education
IGCSE	International General Certificate of Secondary Education
MBESC	Ministry of Basic Education, Culture and Sport
N	Number of responses
NEPRU	Namibian Economic Policy Research Unit
NIED	National Institute for Educational Development
PETS	Public Expenditure Tracking Survey
QSDS	Quantitative Service Delivery Survey
SDF	School Development Fund

Executive Summary

With Independence in 1990, the government prioritised expenditure on social sectors such as education and health in order to address poverty and a highly skewed income distribution brought about by racial segregation. Investment in these sectors will result in a healthier and better-educated population and enables it to take up economic opportunities. After 14 years of independence, the outcome has not always met expectations. Thus, the focus has shifted from the mere allocation of financial resources to votes and budget lines to the efficient use of public resources. A tool that has been developed over the past decade and used in many countries to track down the use of public resources is a Public Expenditure Tracking Survey (PETS). Government has decided to apply this tool to Namibia and selected two sectors – basic education and health. These two sectors have absorbed a major chunk of budget allocations since independence. The guiding hypothesis for the survey is that actual service delivery is much worse than budgetary allocations would imply because public funds do not reach the intended facilities as expected and hence outcomes cannot improve.

To verify this hypothesis a sample of schools and health facilities in seven of Namibia's thirteen regions was randomly selected. Questionnaires were developed to collect information from different levels within the education sector on the use of financial resources, human resources and the availability of material and equipment. Extensive interviews were carried out with officials in regional offices, with school inspectors, principals, teachers, learners and school board members. 84% of interviews planned were conducted.

The analysis of data collected from the ministry and regional offices reveals that the amounts allocated to regional offices by the ministry correspond to the amounts recorded at regional offices as their income from central government. However, it was not possible to compare the use of funds at these two levels since the general ledger at the ministry did not allow for a regional break down and not all financial information – for instance supplies by the central government store – was included in the general ledger. The implementation of an Integrated Financial Management System as announced by the Minister of Finance at the beginning of 2004 will help close this information gap. Funds at regional level were not always used for the intended budget line. However, there were no clear patterns of under- and over expenditure of the main budget items.

The study compared the allocation of funds to schools from regional offices for the purchase of textbooks and stationery with records at schools about the amounts available. For most schools the comparison was not possible because of a lack of records. For the remaining cases, the allocations corresponded in about 30% of all cases. Furthermore, the survey tried to compare the allocation for the purchase of textbooks and stationery with the value of these items ordered and received by schools. Again, this was only possible based on data collected at some regional offices, because of incomplete records at schools and regional offices. According to

the data available, allocations were sometimes overspent and sometimes under-utilised. One factor explaining these discrepancies is incomplete records. Another factor is the discount the supplier provides that results in the final value of books received being lower than the value ordered according to the catalogue price. It is recommended that schools receive training in proper record keeping. It would improve auditing, control and enable schools to reconcile the value of textbooks received with the initial allocation. Systematic and accurate recording systems are also advisable for regional offices.

Of concern is that only few records on the supply of stationery to regional offices and to schools exist. This renders it not only impossible to reconcile allocations with actual commitments but could also result in leakages of material for which a market exists. Since records were often incomplete, leakages of resources could not be proven.

The only cash handled by schools is the contribution of parents to the School Development Fund. The amounts collected vary hugely between regions and between schools in rural and urban areas resulting in large differences in the availability of equipment and material at schools that can explain the performance of schools to some extent. Learners do not always receive receipts for their payments, which could indicate leakages of financial resources. The Education Development Fund as proposed by the Education Act 2001 could be used to level out some of the differences in financial resources available at schools. In addition, other measures need to be explored that do not discourage schools that source substantial amounts from own sources but that take cognizance of the unequal distribution of wealth in society. Better off schools could be encouraged to enter into twinning agreements with schools that have fewer resources available, to share some of the resources and also to share best management practices.

The control and auditing capacity at most schools needs improvement. External and internal auditing is not conducted regularly at all schools. School board members who could play an important role in the internal auditing and control of the use of funds would need special training. In general, granting more financial autonomy to schools and regional offices implies that the auditing and control capacity at both levels needs to be strengthened.

More than 80% of the allocation to primary and secondary education is spent on personnel, which justifies a closer focus on the use of human resources. Data was collected from various levels concerning the number of teachers employed at schools. In most cases, the information provided differed between the various respondents. An explanation could be that information about the fluctuation of staff – transfer, resignation, death – is not always transferred to the next higher level. To exclude the possibility of personnel still being on the payroll although having left the school stricter control and reconciliation of the number of actual staff appears to be necessary.

While there are no large discrepancies in the learner-to-teacher ratio between rural and urban areas the qualification and experience of teaching staff differs substantially. The highest qualification for 80% of teachers in rural areas is a Basic Education Teachers' Diploma (BETD) while 60% of teachers in urban areas have a qualification beyond the BETD. In addition, teachers at urban schools have a professional experience that exceeds the experience of their counterparts at rural schools by about 50%.

Furthermore, though fewer principals at rural schools expressed their concern about absenteeism of teachers, considerably more teachers at rural schools were absent during a reference month for official and personal reasons than at urban schools. It could be that absenteeism at rural schools is regarded as normal and hence principals do not perceive it as a problem. Teachers in rural areas are also absent for a longer period of time, which can be explained with the remoteness of schools and the lack of infrastructure and transport that makes travelling more time consuming than in urban areas. Valuable teaching time is eventually lost because of the absenteeism of teaching staff.

Besides human resources, textbooks and stationery are important inputs into education. The availability of textbooks of two major subjects – English and mathematics – at schools was analysed. Though the average number of textbooks per learner was almost the same for rural and urban schools, significant differences exist between and within regions. Some regions have up to 25% more textbooks per learner than the national average while others have up to 20% less than the national average. Several factors contribute to these discrepancies: The amounts collected for the School Development Funds enable some schools to buy additional textbooks – and other equipment – while other schools do not have this option. Schools that keep proper record systems are in a better position to compare allocations and the value of material received than schools without records. The policy that learners have to replace education material that is lost or damaged is not enforced at all schools, resulting in fewer textbooks being available at certain schools. Enforcement of the replacement policy, proper filing systems for orders and deliveries and sharing of resources between schools could help close the gap in the availability of textbooks.

Similar discrepancies exist in the availability of other equipment and facilities. By far less overhead projectors, computers and photocopiers are found at rural schools than at urban, partly because only 52% of rural schools are connected to the national electricity grid. However, there are also regional discrepancies. The same applies to facilities such as libraries, laboratories and sport grounds. Again, the discrepancies follow a similar pattern with the same regions being better off than others.

Stocktaking is done regularly at most schools and inventories are compiled either annually or every term. It is also common that inventories are controlled by the school inspector or someone from the regional education office.

School inspectors and regional education directors rate school management more critically than teachers and learners. Inspectors and directors cite the qualification of school management as one of the main factors for the low rating. It appears that the school board needs more training to contribute meaningfully to the management of schools and to control the use of resources at schools. Though regular briefing and meetings are held at most schools, teachers are not always well informed about financial matters. It is therefore recommended that financial matters are always part of the agenda for school meetings.

Repetition rates at rural schools are almost 50% higher than at urban schools, while dropout rates are about 15% higher. Furthermore, fewer learners at rural schools achieved the required marks at the end of grade 10 and 12 to progress with the next higher level of education. Schools in regions that are better equipped with textbooks, equipment and facilities and have better qualified teachers apparently perform better than other schools.

Concisely, Namibia spends a relatively high share of GDP on education in international comparison and the results are rather mixed. The study, however, could not substantiate the main hypothesis that the mixed output is caused by leakages of resources. This is primarily due to incomplete records.

1. Introduction

1.1. Background

The Namibian Government inherited at independence in 1990 a highly divided society brought about by racial segregation over the previous decades. Well developed economic centres and a small wealthy population contrasted the informal economic sectors, subsistence farmers and people living in poverty. Thus, government identified poverty alleviation, reduction of income inequality, job creation and sustainable economic growth as the main four national development objectives. One way to achieve this is to prioritise expenditure in the social sectors – in particular health and education. Investment in both will result in a better-educated and healthier population and enable the citizen to take up economic opportunities and hence improve their quality of living.

The education and health sectors received the highest budget allocations over the years[1]. Public investment in especially the formerly neglected regions to spur economic activities has resulted in a high ratio of government expenditure over GDP. The ratio stands currently at about 34%. In the budget statement for the 2002/03 Fiscal Year the government set a target of 30%, which would imply that expenditure grows less than GDP. This, however, does not necessarily result in a decline of the quantity or quality of public services provided. Government had already realised that high public expenditure does not automatically conform to high quality service delivery. The outcome of the expenditure has not always met the expectations and hence the impact of public spending on poverty is most likely less than anticipated. For instance, promotion rates for upper primary (Grade 4 to 7) and lower secondary (Grade 8 to 10) have dropped towards the end of the 1990s after substantial increases shortly after independence (Table A1). Net enrolment rates have fluctuated over the period 1996 to 2001 but seem to be rather on the decline than on the increase towards the end of this period (Table A2 Net and gross enrolment rates for 1996 to 2001

). Compared to other African countries, Namibia spends a higher share of its GDP (8%) on education, while repetition rates (13%) are higher than for most of the countries that spend less. On the other hand, Namibia compares very well to other countries concerning its Primary Education Completion rate (95%). Hence, high

[1] Increased statutory expenditure (interest payments, loan guarantees) has led to the Ministry of Finance receiving the largest or second largest share of the budget since the new millennium.

spending has achieved mixed results rather than improvements of all indicators (Table A5).

This output has shifted the focus from the mere allocations within the national budget to votes and budget lines to the efficient use of public resources. A study conducted by the World Bank in 1998 identified a need for an increased focus on efficiency and effectiveness of spending (World Bank, 1999). Increased efficiency in service delivery could furthermore help level out the impacts of reducing the expenditure ratio over GDP. Various reforms have been implemented over the past three years to enhance the use of financial resources and link budget allocations to outcome, such as the three-year rolling budget (Medium-Term Expenditure Framework), the Performance Efficiency and Management Programme, Medium Term Plans and an Integrated Financial Management System.

Concerns about the effective utilisation of public resources are however, neither a recent phenomena nor are they limited to Namibia or developing countries. Years back in the 1970s a report found out that about 7 billion US dollars had been wasted and misused in the US Department of Health, Education and Welfare alone (Rahim and Bedari, 2003). A host of literature exists on budget allocation and the quality of service delivery in general and on individual countries. Research in this area received increased attention following studies carried out by staff from the World Bank during the 1990s in Ghana and Uganda. A new, innovative tool – the Public Expenditure Tracking Survey (PETS) - has been used to evaluate the use of financial resources at national, sub-national and frontline service provider levels. A PETS tracks the flow of government resources from central government through all structures to service facilities, such as schools and health facilities. The PETS is employed to determine how much of the original resources reach each level and on which item the funds are actually spent. It is a tool to locate and quantify the leakage of funds. The leakage of funds refers to the diversion of funds for other than the intended purposes and for private gain. More recently, the PETS has been combined with a Quantitative Service Delivery Survey (QSDS). The QSDS goes beyond the tracing of funds and tries to explore the determinants of poor service delivery (Dehn and Reinikka, 2000). It collects for instance information on resource allocation within service providers, staff attendance, financing patterns and management systems.

Since the Namibian government experienced the discrepancy between budget allocation and actual results, it has decided to conduct a Public Expenditure Tracking Survey combined with a Quantitative Service Delivery Survey. Two ministries were selected for this survey, namely Basic Education and Health because they are absorbing a large chunk of the national budget. It is assumed that the results from the study can be applied to other sectors as well.

The study has focused on the major budget lines and on major items such as personnel, textbooks and stationery that have a direct impact on the performance of schools. Budget lines such as Travel and Subsistence Allowance, Transport and

capital expenditure were excluded from the survey. It was also not possible within the given period and budget limits to analyse the management of school hostels.

1.2. Working hypotheses

The overall hypothesis for this survey is that actual service delivery is much worse than budgetary allocations would imply because public funds do not reach the intended facilities as expected, and hence outcomes cannot improve. Additional hypotheses were formulated on specific inputs that are critical for the quality of service delivery:

- Human resources are not used for the intended purposes or are not used efficiently.
- Material and equipment could be available but is rarely used or not maintained.

Questionnaires for the survey were designed to cover all these aspects.

1.3. Methodology

The project has been supervised and guided by a Steering Committee that is chaired by the Office of the Auditor General. The main government institutions are represented on the Steering Committee – Ministry of Basic Education, Culture and Sport; Ministry of Finance; Ministry of Health and Social Services; National Planning Commission Secretariat; and the Office of the Prime Minister. Regular meetings were held to discuss the approach, the questionnaires and provide feedback on the progress.

The preparations for the survey started with an institutional mapping with specific focus on the two sectors selected for the survey. The mapping intended to capture the interaction between the various role players in the budget process from planning to execution and specifically the interaction of and responsibilities at different levels within these two sectors. In addition, a background paper on the health sector was prepared. The questionnaire built on information provided by these two documents.

1.3.1. Sampling

A representative sample of seven of Namibia's thirteen administrative regions was chosen for the survey. This sample is a convenient sample focusing on the efficiency of the project rather than a random sample.

The north east of the country consists of two regions – Caprivi and Kavango – that have similar features. Kavango was chosen based on efficiency reasons as was Hardap. Hardap and Karas are the two regions, which make up the south of Namibia and reveal the same characteristics. Both regions are dominated by commercial livestock farmers and have a low population density.

The north central of Namibia consists of four regions of which two were selected. The north central was previously divided into two education directorates – Ondangwa East and West. It was planned to select one region out of each of these two directorates. However, since the regional offices for Ondangwa East were destroyed by a fire earlier in 2003, there was a risk that valuable information was no longer available. Therefore, we decided to cover the two regions that made up Ondangwa West – namely Omusati and Oshana.

Finally, Kunene in the north west and Omaheke in the east were selected because these two regions depict characteristics of both, communal and commercial farming areas. Furthermore, Kunene is unique as part of the region is quite remote and the pastoralists in that area continue with a nomadic lifestyle. Khomas with the capital Windhoek needed to be part of the sample since it is the major urban area. These three regions combine the same features as the two regions in central Namibia that were not covered, namely the Erongo and Otjozondjupa regions.

Once the regions were chosen a representative sample of schools was randomly selected. The number of schools in each of the education regions varies significantly. There are some 330 schools – primary, combined and secondary schools - in the Kavango region compared to 42 schools in the Omaheke region. In the larger regions, we selected between 7% and 10% of schools while in the smaller regions about 20% for a representative sample. We did not distinguish between primary, combined and secondary schools but selected a random sample of the total number of schools. A slightly different approach was chosen for the Khomas region where we selected only schools in Windhoek: five schools of the central city and ten schools in the former townships of Khomasdal and Katutura. In total 109 public and seven private schools were randomly chosen for the survey. This sample was discussed with the Steering Committee and especially with the ministry's representative on the Steering Committee. Details about the sample are contained in Table A3.

Both, regions as well as schools are representative for the whole country. The name of the regions selected are mentioned and used in the report to underline and illustrate regional disparities. Since it is a representative sample, the name of the school actually visited does not matter. The results reflect the situation at schools in the whole country.

1.3.2. Questionnaires

Comprehensive questionnaires were developed for several respondents at each hierarchical level in the two sectors covered, with questions designed to extract the same type of information at all levels for comparison purposes.

In education, questionnaires were designed for the ministry, regional education director, school inspector, school principal or alternatively head of department,

teacher, learner (head boy or head girl) and school board member who is not employed by the school (representing parents on school boards).

For the health sector, questionnaires have been developed for the ministry, regional health director, regional chief medical officer, principal medical officer at district level, head of the health facility (anyone in charge of a clinic, health centre or a hospital), medical doctors, nurses and patients (in-patients and out-patients).

It should be noted that questions often deal with perceptions of respondents not necessarily with facts. If it happens that perceptions and facts do not match it could indicate the need for stronger communication between the various hierarchical levels and for an improved flow of information. It would have been beyond the scope of work to verify the perceptions of the respondents.

1.3.3. The pilot survey

A pilot survey covering six schools and six health facilities (three in Windhoek, two in Okahandja and one in Groot-Aub for each sector) was carried out to test the questionnaire. Enumerators were trained and some were selected to participate in the pilot survey. The pilot survey did not indicate any major problem with the questionnaires. After a last round of discussions internally as well as with the two ministries involved the questionnaires were finalised.

1.3.4. The main survey

The project members were divided into five teams, with four teams starting in the Kavango region as from 28 July 2003, while one team remained in the Khomas region. Each team consisted of one NEPRU staff member and one or two enumerators. After having received training at NEPRU, the enumerators received a one-day refresher training when they joined the teams in the field. Especially for interviewing patients and school board members, the knowledge of local languages was essential. Therefore, we could usually use the same enumerators for only one or two regions.

One of the major challenges we encountered during the survey – besides locating the schools in the remote areas - was the poor communication infrastructure. For instance, of the 26 schools sampled in the Kavango region, only three schools have telephone and a fax machine (one being a private school), another three have telephone but no fax machine, while the rest have none. However, even schools – and other institutions – that have telephone and a fax machine could often not be contacted because the equipment was not working or in some areas, the telephone wires were stolen because of the copper content. Thus, except for the Windhoek region, schools and health facilities were usually not informed about our visit and hence were not prepared. Subsequently, we spent much more time at the facilities than planned to collect all the data and information needed. In addition, meetings with school board members had to be arranged ad hoc. This was hardly a problem

in rural areas but it posed a challenge in Windhoek where parents are often employed and could not be interviewed. Parents in the Hardap region often work on commercial farms far away from schools and were therefore not available for interviews either.

Furthermore, records at service providers were generally poor or non-existing. We had to count desks, chairs, textbooks and even ask learners about drop-outs and repeaters with the help of their teachers. We had to find innovative ways to extract pieces of information here and there on financial matters because of the lack of records. Order forms for text books and stationery are not kept at schools, except for few schools that filed copies of them. Delivery notes for textbooks and other materials were also rarely available. This makes it very difficult to compare what schools have ordered with what they have actually received or what they should have received.

Some of the other challenges we faced were:

- Examinations at schools. Learners and teachers were thus not immediately available for interviews.
- New school boards were elected during the first half of 2003 – often only in May. Thus, we tried to interview members of the old school board.
- Neither learners nor teachers were found at one school.

In many instances, we had to return to the same institution more than once to collect outstanding information.

At each school we intended to interview the Principal or Head of Department, two teachers, two learners – usually the head boy and girl or a class captain – and a parent who is a school board member but not employed by the school. We decided not to interview learners at lower primary schools – Grade 1 to 4 – since we did not expect getting accurate information.

Despite these challenges, we covered 113 out of the sample of 116 schools and 23 of the 27 school inspectors. A table with the total numbers of interviews conducted is attached as Table A4.

The whole project took longer than initially planned and the schedule needed to be revised. The field survey was more time consuming than anticipated as described above. Thereafter we faced problems with the accuracy of data entry that caused a delay of about two months. Finally, two of the five team members left NEPRU which necessitated a reorganisation of the team and schedule.

2. Financial resources[2]

Namibia inherited an educational system at Independence in 1990 that had benefited a few learners while the majority was denied access to quality education. The segregation followed racial lines. This was changed by the new government that commits itself to universal Basic Education for all, acknowledging that only with educated people the development tasks lying ahead can be successfully achieved. Subsequently education has received the largest share of the national budget. General statistics have indicated an increase in school enrolment rates and literacy rates over the years. However, the outcome from education has not always met expectations.

The Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MBESC) is the central agency responsible for basic education. Previously, Namibia was divided into seven educational regions. This changed at the beginning of 2003. The country is now divided into thirteen educational regions corresponding to the thirteen political regions in Namibia. This is in line with the decentralisation of government functions. The restructuring has posed a challenge to the survey, since the newly established offices were not always fully functioning. Some information was still at the previous regional offices or could not be located.

The 13 education regions are further divided into circuits led by school inspectors. Circuits consist of up to 43 schools in the areas selected for the survey. Finally, school clusters have been created to increase the efficiency of communication between the regional office and schools. For each cluster, a principal of the schools that are part of the cluster acts as cluster principal in addition to his functions at his school. The survey did not focus on clusters since they do not administer any school funds.

2.1. Sources of funds

Government provides the largest chunk of resources for schools. Additional sources are the School Development Fund and donors. Teachers and administrative staff are paid by government, buildings and infrastructure is provided, and material and equipment is supplied. This refers to both, government and private schools though the degree of dependence from government differs significantly between private schools. Only very few private schools receive no support from government at all.

Budget allocations to the ministry are part of the whole budget process that starts about nine months before the beginning of the Financial Year with meetings

[2] A few budget lines have been selected for the analysis, such as personnel costs, materials and supply (mainly textbooks and stationery) and utilities. Spending on hostels, travel and subsistence allowance, and capital expenditure (development budget) are not part of the analysis since it was not feasible to cover all budget items within the given framework of the study.

between the Ministry of Finance, the National Planning Commission Secretariat and the Bank of Namibia to outline the budget framework. Once the budget ceiling for the ministry has been set, the regional offices are approached for their inputs. Generally, regional offices feel informed about the budget ceilings and keep to them in their budget preparations. School Inspectors and schools are usually not involved in the preparation of the national budget. Subsequently, 50% of school inspectors indicated that their priorities are reflected in the final budget while the other 50% think it is not the case or they just don't know. Schools are generally aware of the budget allocations before they place any orders. Almost half of the principals in Windhoek (47%) apparently did not know about allocations to their school. This is rather surprising, since they are quite close to all relevant offices and the communication infrastructure is in place. About two-thirds of the school inspectors are informed about the financial allocations to schools. Since school inspectors are more often in contact with schools, it could be considered involving them more strongly in the budget preparation process. Their knowledge about the needs of schools could strengthen the regional inputs into the national budget.

Photo 1 Store room built by the community

Photo: Klaus Schade

The Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture has received the largest share of the national budget – up to 23%. Excluding the allocation for arts, culture and sport, about 19.4% is allocated to education including hostels. Some 10% of the allocation to basic education is used to run hostels that accommodate learners primarily at secondary schools. Deducting the costs of hostels about 17.5% of the total national budget is left for education. Close to 80% of the allocations are spent on personnel expenditure. Within the ministry, primary education receives about 55% of the

allocation and secondary education about 24%. Personnel expenditure accounts for 88% of the allocations to primary education and absorbs 79% of the budget for secondary education. Though there is not much of a mismatch concerning budget priorities of the ministry and the priorities of regional offices, the high share allocated to the payroll is of concern for regional directors and principals since it leaves little funds for other budget items – in particular textbooks and stationery (Table A6).

A considerable amount of money is allocated to utilities for the provision of electricity and water. Since 2004, schools receive a lump sum to pay for utilities and have to fork out additional money from their own resources if they exceed this amount. However, not all learners benefit from these allocations. According to the survey, only 67% of schools and 80% of learners have access to piped water. The figures for access to electricity are 65% and 79% respectively. On average N$71 per learner is allocated for utilities. This is more than the allocation for textbooks per learner in secondary schools, let alone at primary schools. Adjusted for the share of learners without access to electricity and water this amount increases to N$89 per learner. This amount benefits only schools that are connected to the electricity grid and/or to the water pipeline. Schools that are not connected are actually allocated less funds per learner than schools that are connected. This would justify a shift in the allocation of funds.

It, therefore, could be considered to allocate the amount of N$71 per learner to all schools. Schools that are not connected to the national electricity grid or piped water could use the funds to improve the provision of textbooks, stationery or other equipment and provide thus a higher quality of education. For instance, all but 18% of schools with access to electricity have at least one photocopier. This enables teachers to provide learners quickly with additional learning material, while their counterparts at schools without electricity need to share all additional information by writing it on the black board. Students then jot this information down in their books, which is quite a time-consuming way. Additional textbooks and other material would help eliminate this disadvantage. Furthermore, if allocated a certain amount per learner for utilities, schools would be encouraged to use electricity and water more efficiently. If their consumption exceeds the allocation the difference would need to be paid from the SDF or other sources. This can be justified since these schools provide additional services as compared to other schools.

Schools do not receive cash from government, but use the funds allocated to them through orders of material and equipment such as textbooks and stationery. Wages and salaries are paid by central government – usually by transfer to the account of the employee but sometimes also by cheque. The latter is especially the case for teachers or other staff who have just joined the civil service and for whom the direct transfer of salaries to their accounts has not been processed. Teachers at government schools are paid usually by government except for few cases where government co-operates with other international organisations on educational projects, and teachers are co-funded by these organisations.

It appears that government is quite a reliable employer. Only very few interviewees (teachers, principals, Regional Education Directors) indicated that salaries are outstanding. Often these are small amounts and are in addition to the normal remuneration package for additional functions performed, such as acting positions. From these findings, one can conclude that wages and salaries reach the intended recipient. However, this does not necessarily imply that there are no leakages in form of persons being on the payroll but not working for the government – ghost workers. This topic is dealt with in more detail in Section 3.1 below.

Donations

The - often - only cash source for schools is the School Development Fund. In addition, some schools receive direct donations from donors, often in the form of material and equipment, and some assistance from parents and the wider community. The community is often involved in constructing additional facilities.

26% of principals interviewed indicated that they receive donations, with urban schools being better off (32%) than rural schools (23%). Schools in the Kavango region received donations to a much lesser degree. Only 8.3% of them benefited from donors. Private schools appear to have better links to donors since 57% received support, but because of their autonomous status, they do not inform the ministry about the donations (Table 1). Government schools usually adhere to the rule that donations have to be approved by the ministry. Only 15% have rarely informed their superiors about donations received.

Table 1 Share of schools that have received donations

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
Rural	14.29%	8.33%		25.00%	33.33%	22.73%	41.67%	66.67%	23.53%
Urban	60.00%		20.00%	0.00%	100.00%		0.00%	50.00%	32.14%
Average	33.33%	8.33%	20.00%	20.00%	40.00%	23.81%	38.46%	57.14%	25.89%

These findings correspond with responses from the Regional Education Directors who feel that they are generally informed about donations, though it is difficult to control the flow of funds or material from donors to schools.

2.2. Financial allocations to schools

The intention of the survey was to compare information on budget allocations and uses of financial resources at different levels: Central government, regional offices and schools. This was only partly feasible. Firstly, while records on budget allocations to educational regions were available at central government this was not the case for the use of funds. The general ledger at the ministry does not allow for a regional breakdown of commitments and the financial information system is not all-inclusive. Travel and Subsistence allowance is excluded, as are deliveries from the central government store to the regions (stationery and other supplies). Secondly,

the previous seven educational regions were divided into thirteen regions during the financial year 2002/03. Hence, data at the ministry for the previous periods refers to the seven educational regions and could not be compared with data collected at regional offices that refers to the thirteen political regions. In addition, the separation of the seven educational regions into the thirteen administrative regions has not yet been fully completed. Some functions are still located at the previous educational office because of the lack of qualified staff. Finally, files could not always been located – neither in the previous office nor in the new regional office.

The analysis of data available reveals that the amounts allocated by the head office to regions correspond to the amounts the regional offices stated as their budgets. The amounts differed by just 0.1% during the three financial years under review. This difference is caused by a discrepancy in just one region on the same budget line every year (furniture and office equipment). This is proof that the information about allocated amounts reaches the regions without alterations (Table A7).

The use of funds for different budget lines at regional level differs however considerably from budget allocations. With the exception of the item 'material and supply' that refers mainly to the supply of stationery and textbooks, which appears to be underestimated in most cases, there is no clear pattern of deviations. Overspending on certain budget items is levelled out by under-utilisation of others, though the adherence to budget allocations has deteriorated over the past three years. Two regions in particular have influenced this trend through considerable over spending (also Table A7).

Allocation for materials and supplies

Following the flow of funds from regional offices down to schools proved to be an even more challenging exercise. Records are usually poor and the filing system differs between regions. While some regional offices keep separate files for each school containing invoices and delivery notes from textbook suppliers for several years, others file records for all schools in one file for each Financial Year. This made it difficult to trace orders and deliveries of textbooks to individual schools. In addition, files are seemingly not complete and – as it often happens – records are misplaced in wrong folders. Moreover, hardly any records of the delivery of stationery from government stores to schools are available at regional offices – let alone at schools.

Each region allocates a certain amount per learner to schools for ordering textbooks and stationery. The amount is higher for secondary schools than primary schools, since a number of textbooks for secondary schools are purchased overseas. Most often, it was not possible to verify whether schools received the value of material they are eligible for based on the amount per learner allocated since record keeping is generally poor with the exception of a few schools. Hardly any systematic filing system is in place for orders, delivery notes and invoices from textbook and stationery suppliers. Records are incomplete and often no records are available at all. Reportedly, schools are sometimes broken into during school holidays and

some of the files are stolen. Thus, it is almost impossible for schools to follow up whether they have received the material they have ordered or whether they have fully used their allocation. These schools might actually receive less funds per learner than schools with a proper filing system that helps them following up on outstanding material.

Information concerning the budget allocation per school, the value of textbooks and stationery ordered and received by schools could only be collected from four of the seven regional offices that were part of the sample. Since proper records were not found, at all schools the number of cases left for the analysis is rather low. The following tables indicate that information provided by schools and by regional offices concerning the amounts allocated for textbooks and stationery for the Financial Year 2002/03 by the regional office, corresponds in only 29% and 32% of valid cases respectively. Poor record keeping explains the results certainly to a large extent, while the leakage of funds could not be verified because of the same reason.

Table 2 Budget allocation for textbooks, 2002/03

Regional code	Sample size	Number of valid cases*	Corresponding data	Share
1	12	12	3	25.0%
2	11	10	7	70.0%
5	25	16	1	6.3%
6	15	10	3	30.0%
Total	63	49	14	29.2%

Table 3 Budget allocation for stationery, 2002/03

Regional code	Sample size	Number of valid cases*	Corresponding data	Share
1	12	12	0	0.0%
2	11	9	8	88.9%
5	25	9	1	11.1%
6	15	4	2	50.0%
Total	63	34	11	32.4%

*Note: Valid cases refer to cases where information from both levels was available.

Despite the poor record keeping at schools 60% of principals indicated that they reconcile budget allocations with amounts spent so far, while 75% are aware of remaining funds. The percentage is significantly higher for urban (75% and 88% respectively) than rural areas (56% and 71%) and for regions with a better infrastructure (for more details see Table A8 and Table A9). However, these responses have to be qualified by own observations such as the lack of receipts and order forms kept at schools that certainly reduces the ability to make any follow ups.

2.3. The School Development Fund

The Education Act, 2001 makes provision for the establishment of a School Development Fund (SDF), "to provide, develop and improve reasonable and necessary facilities at school; and to uplift and improve educational, sport and cultural activities at school" (Government Gazette 2673, p.19). Money from the SDF is usually the only cash managed by schools. Records on the total amount collected and used were not always available. Sometimes records were reportedly with external auditors. Reviewing the auditing reports at different schools revealed that proper financial practices were not always applied. There is apparently a great demand for training in financial matters in particular for school board members to perform their control function fully.

Contributions per learner to the SDF vary widely between regions, rural and urban areas and between primary and secondary schools (Table 4).

Table 4 Average SDF contribution, by region and by type of school

Region	Junior Primary	Senior Primary	Junior Secondary	Senior Secondary
Hardap	96.11	126.00	291.67	312.50
Kavango	19.16	31.73	61.67	75.00
Khomas	430.00	430.00	1,858.33	1,858.33
Kunene	39.44	41.11	55.00	
Omaheke	141.43	141.43	170.00	250.00
Omusati	13.57	21.29	37.70	
Oshana	14.60	32.11	59.29	90.00
Private	2,664.00	2,664.00	950.00	950.00
rural	40.28	50.80	110.07	380.00
urban	963.06	1,018.24	1,251.50	1,362.78
National average	226.91	267.20	402.74	1,011.79

Subsequently, the means with which schools can provide quality education differ tremendously. This is further aggravated by the ability or inability of parents to pay the fees. According to the Education Act parents may be exempt from paying fees by the school board if they cannot afford the payment. Usually a statement from a traditional or other authority is required to confirm that the parents are poor. This is certainly a less bureaucratic way than introducing general means testing. Students who are supposed to pay but fail to pay may be excluded from activities financed by the SDF. The survey revealed that about 60% of learners had paid the fees at the time of the survey. The region with the lowest share of learners that paid school fees is at the same time the region with the highest share of payment in kind. This leaves very little room for improving the facilities and puts learners at a disadvantage with their counterparts in regions that are much better off (Table 5).

The Education Act 2001 makes provision for the establishment of an Education Development Fund that can source funds from the national budget as well as from donors. The fund is to support socio-economically disadvantaged learners and could be used to pay SDF contributions for learners exempt from payment. However, to date no money has been allocated to this fund. For the fund to play a significant role in levelling out the stark differences in SDF available to schools, sufficient funding needs to be provided from the national budget and sourced from donors. Government could also consider contributing additional funds to the SDF for schools in poor communities. However, the support should not discourage schools from collecting school fees and could therefore be designed in such a way that government adds one dollar to each dollar collected by the school. Both mechanisms should be restricted to schools that receive far less income from the SDF than the national and/or regional average. It would help these schools to improve the provision of material and equipment and to provide better educational services. It would thus contribute to closing the gap between the haves and the have-nots.

Furthermore, rural schools could be assisted in linking up with local sponsors that are usually located in towns and/or other regions to source additional funds from outside government. The regional offices could play a facilitating role in this regard.

Table 5 SDF in kind and SDF paid

Region	Payment in kind		Share of students that have paid SDF	
	N*	%	N	%
Hardap	12	0.17	11	56.64
Kavango	24	18.63	22	36.23
Khomas	15	0.80	14	50.36
Kunene	9	1.11	9	55.33
Omaheke	10	0.00	10	64.20
Omusati	22	0.41	22	75.55
Oshana	13	0.77	13	74.92
Private	6	13.67	6	77.50
Rural	83	5.76	81	61.59
Urban	28	3.36	26	52.96
National average	111	5.15	107	59.50

*Note: N refers to the number of responses.

School budget

Following the requirement of the Education Act, “to prepare an annual estimation of income and expenditure and present it to the school parents” [Part V, 25 (14) a] most schools (76%) draw up a budget at the beginning of the year. Depending on the structure in place at schools, the financial committee, the school board or just the principal are involved in the budget preparation. Teachers who are not part of the School Board are apparently not well informed about this budget preparation.

Almost 80% of schools do not use the full SDF amount collected. The share is slightly higher for rural (80%) than for urban areas (75%). The savings are overwhelmingly accumulated for larger investment in the future (60%). Again, this happens more often in rural (62%) than urban areas (55%). This certainly makes sense given the sometimes low amounts collected. However, accumulation over a longer period of time would not be in the interest of learners who contributed to the fund but don't benefit from it since they have left school in the meanwhile. The accumulation is also somehow surprising since schools consistently complain about a lack of textbooks and stationery (for more details see Section 4) that could be purchased from the SDF.

Almost every fifth teacher indicated that he has no knowledge whether there are funds unspent at the end of the year or not. Teachers in urban areas are apparently less informed than in rural areas. 28% indicated they do not know compared to 14% in rural areas. The lack of information implies that learners are left with fewer resources than would be possible, which in turn can have an impact on the quality of education provided and the outcome. The school board usually knows about the savings and the reasons for them. However, it appears to be important to train in particular the parents sitting on the school board in financial matters to enable them to fulfil their role as outlined in the Education Act.

Students indicated in most cases that they did receive receipts for their SDF payments (90% in urban and 75% in rural areas respectively). However, about 16% of pupils in rural areas did not receive any receipt compared to just 2% in urban areas. This could indicate loopholes that bear the risk of leakages.

Other school fees

Other fees collected by schools include sports fees - often N$1 to finance sport activities - breakage fees to repair broken windows and other equipment, medical fees to cater for medical treatment at health facilities when necessary and other fees. The amounts vary between schools but reveal the same patterns as with the SDF on a regional level. Schools in wealthier regions charge higher additional fees or additional fees at all compared to schools in poorer regions.

Some schools generate additional income by providing access to facilities or equipment to the public. Usually the private use of telephones is only allowed with Flexi Cards though some schools charge a certain fee per minute for the telephone use and have generated income in excess of their telephone bill. However, in general the public does not make use of school facilities such as libraries, sport grounds, photocopier etc. It could be considered to open in particular libraries to the public or combine public libraries with school libraries to increase the usage of facilities.

2.4. Budget control and auditing

The Education Act requires that the school board submits an audited financial statement of the use of the School Development Fund at the end of each financial year, at the school parents annual general meeting [Part V, 25 (14) d]. Despite the requirement 50% of school board members interviewed indicated that they do not know how often the books are audited by an external auditor. Only 18% responded that the books are audited annually or every six months. There is an obvious divide between rural and urban areas. 51% of teachers and 13% of principals in rural areas stated that they do not know the frequency of external audits. In urban areas, the external auditing is conducted on an annual basis according to responses from principals. In rural areas, this is only the case in 57% of schools (see Table A11). The responses indicate that while books are regularly audited at urban schools, the results are not shared with all teachers and school board members. In rural areas, the auditing takes place less frequently and teachers and school board members are also not very well informed about the auditing. The results from rural areas are not so surprising since the remoteness of schools inhibits the access to auditors who are usually based in towns.

Furthermore, teachers and school board members in rural areas are more critical about the competence of auditors – 11% and 15% respectively rated them as being hardly competent – than in urban areas, where no one gave this rating. However, quite a number of these interviewees could not judge the quality of the auditing. Principals are apparently more confident about the auditors' competence. Only 2% and 6% in rural and urban areas respectively were not convinced about their quality (see Table A13). Though no thorough analysis of auditing statements were carried out during the survey, it transpired from the few random checks that schools did not always adhere to proper book keeping rules.

Internal auditing systems exist in about 60% of all schools without striking differences between rural and urban areas. Again, teachers are not always aware of the internal procedures (see Table A12). Internal auditors are sometimes parents from the school board or teachers who also deal with school finances.

Based on the findings of the survey, it is necessary to improve the transparency of financial matters at schools to increase the efficient use of financial resources. The capacity of school board members, in particular of parents, but also of teachers and principals to deal with school finances, to execute and control school budgets and to understand and interpret financial statements needs to be increased. Regional education offices or school inspectors could also assist schools in providing a list of auditors they could contact for external auditing. This, in turn would have a positive impact on the quality of education, since resources would be used more efficiently.

A higher degree of autonomy for schools could improve spending efficiency but the capacity at schools to execute funds, to control and audit appears to be rather limited. Though no systematic review of Auditors' Reports was carried out it became obvious from the few reports browsed through, that records are not always

well kept and accounting procedures were not always adhered to. This matches with own experience during the survey. Unless the capacity especially within the School Board to handle and control finances is improved, a higher degree of autonomy should not be considered.

Since government pursues the policy of decentralising functions, the capacity of executing, controlling and auditing finances at regional level has to be strengthened to ensure that this policy becomes successful.

Photo 2 New classrooms

Photo: Klaus Schade

3. Human resources

By far, the largest share of the budget is allocated to personnel expenditure (Table A6); thus, it needs to be ensured that these resources are used best. The government has encouraged teachers since independence to upgrade their qualification to provide a higher quality of education. However, formal qualification is only one factor influencing the quality of education. Others are the experience and dedication of teachers. While schools receive the same amount per learner for materials such as textbooks and stationery, the allocation of human resources to schools differs significantly and could explain differences in output to at least some degree.

3.1. Number of teachers

The learner-to-teacher ratio is well within the limits government has set – a ratio of 35 for primary schools and a ratio of 30 for secondary schools. According to the survey, the ratio for primary schools stands at 30 compared to 28 for secondary schools. Overall, on average there are 30 learners per teacher with only slight differences between rural and urban schools – 31 and 29 respectively. However, regional differences exist. The ratio ranges between 35 (Omusati) and 25 (Omaheke) (Table 6, and for more details Table A14). Though the learner-to-teacher ratio does not exceed the staffing norm set by government, 43% of principals experience a shortage of teachers[3]. This is partly due to the shortage of specialised subject teachers. Especially schools with few learners cannot employ specialised teachers for each subject because of the staffing norms.

Table 6 Learner-to-teacher ratio by region and by rural and urban schools

	Hardap	Kunene	Omusati	Oshana	Kavango	Khomas	Omaheke	Private	Average
Rural	29	27	35	31	33		24	17	31
Urban	30	31		28		31	28	24	29
Total	29	28	35	30	33	31	25	20	30

The learner-to-teacher ratios are based on information about teaching staff provided by principals or head of departments. These figures however correspond in only 59% of all cases with information provided by teachers themselves. The discrepancy usually numbers one. It is not surprising for larger schools with more than 30 teachers, but differences occur also for schools with less than 10 teachers. Figures provided by the regional education office and the school inspectors correspond with information from the principals in far less than 20% of all schools. Much better knowledge exists about the number of support staff employed at the school, the number of Heads of Department and whether or not there is a principal (Table A15).

The differences can partly be explained with changes in the number of staff. According to the information collected about 20 teachers passed away during the first six months of 2003, while 71 have left the school and four were suspended. Schools in rural areas are harder hit by staff fluctuations than schools in urban areas. About 2% of all teachers at rural schools passed away during the first six months compared to 0.3% at urban schools (Table A16). Additionally, 5.8% of teachers left rural schools compared to 3.4% at urban schools (Table A17). To avoid salaries being paid for staff that is no longer in the employ of the ministry it appears to be necessary to update the information as soon as possible at all levels.

[3] This is the perception of principals and does not necessarily imply that there are posts not filled at the school.

In addition, information from the payroll needs to be verified with actual staffing at schools at regular intervals.

3.2. Qualification and experience

Considerable differences exist between rural and urban areas concerning the qualification and experience of teachers. More than 60% of teachers in urban areas have either a higher diploma or bachelor degree while 80% of teachers at rural areas have obtained a Basic Education Teachers' Diploma (BETD) or less (Table A18). Furthermore, teachers at urban schools have a 50% longer teaching experience – on average 15 years compared to 11 years at rural schools (Table 7). In addition, they stayed longer at the same school - on average for the past 8.3 years compared to teachers at rural schools who have spent on average the past 7.3 years at the school. The average qualification in secondary schools is slightly better than in primary schools though secondary school teachers are less experienced.

Table 7 Number of years of teaching experience of teachers

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	13.18	8.93		9.36	10.14	10.37	12.41	15.80	10.62
urban	17.30		14.83	10.75	12.25		14.00	18.50	15.28
Total	15.14	8.93	14.83	9.67	10.61	10.37	12.52	17.46	11.89

The analysis of the principals' qualification and experience reveals similar patterns. The highest qualification for 45% of principals in rural areas is a BETD or less while this applies to only 15% of principals in urban areas. There are also regional differences. Three quarters of them in the Khomas and Hardap regions have obtained a Bachelor degree, while for most of their counterparts in the other region the BETD is the highest qualification. On average, principals have at least 22 years of experience in the teaching profession. Again, urban schools have more experienced principals than rural schools - 25 years compared to 22 years. On the other hand, principals in rural areas have served longer in this position at their school than principals in urban areas – nine compared to seven years. While principals served for a longer period of time at the same rural school, teachers stay longer at the same urban school.

Government could consider providing explicit financial incentives to teaching staff working in rural areas to attract a larger number of better qualified teachers to these schools. However, financial aspects are not the only factor influencing the decision whether or not to take up jobs in rural areas but these incentives could be attractive for some teachers. Other factors such as the standard of living, access to basic facilities and job opportunities for spouses contribute to the decision as well. A small survey amongst teachers could try to establish what attracts or would attract teachers to rural areas before implementing any new measures.

Advisory teachers

Differences in qualification and experience can be levelled out through additional training courses and the assistance by subject advisory teachers. In some regions, advisory teachers visit schools and attend classes to provide advice while in others they provide training courses at Teachers' Resource Centres. Overwhelmingly, principals and teachers regard stronger support by advisory teachers as necessary. The need for support is more pronounced in rural than urban areas. 91% of teachers and 94% of principals in rural areas indicated that more visits of advisory teachers are necessary compared to 73% and 81% in urban areas respectively, though rural schools were already visited more often by advisory teachers than urban. In addition, schools in previously neglected areas – Kavango, Kunene – received on average more visits by advisory teachers than schools in regions such as Hardap and Khomas.

Working conditions

Besides the formal qualification and experience, the satisfaction with working conditions is seen as a factor influencing the performance of teaching staff. Overall, teachers and principals expressed their satisfaction with the working conditions at school – 66% and 58% respectively (Table A19). 13% and 17% respectively are somewhat indifferent while the remaining are not satisfied. Less teachers and principals at rural schools are satisfied compared to their counterparts at urban schools. The higher fluctuation of teachers in rural areas can also be caused by the lower degree of satisfaction. As mentioned above 5.8% of all teachers in rural areas have left the school compared to 3.4% in urban areas. These findings can partly be related to the lack of material and equipment as well as the lack of office space and access to utilities in rural areas.

Another factor influencing the satisfaction is the workload[4]. Half of all teachers interviewed indicated that the workload is too high and only very few said that it could be more. There is not much of a difference between rural and urban schools. School principals have apparently to carry a higher workload with almost two-thirds complaining about it. However again, there is little difference between rural and urban schools. However, the work pressure for both groups at rural private schools appears to be considerably higher than at public schools (Table A20). There is a strong correlation between the workload and the satisfaction with the working conditions. Interviewees were more satisfied the lower they rated their workload. In addition, 41% of teachers with a qualification less than the BETD regard their workload as too high while this is the case for 64% of teachers with a bachelor or higher degree in education (Table A21). It would require further research to establish why teachers with a higher qualification rate their workload to a larger extent as too high than teachers with a lower qualification.

[4] Respondents were asked to rate their workload. Hence, the question captures perceptions of respondents rather than facts.

The current rating of the workload by principals should be taken into consideration when additional tasks are designed for principals through the creation of cluster schools.

Though some principals mentioned a lack of teachers in particular for specific subjects, almost all schools manage to teach all subjects according to the curriculum. 92% of the teachers confirmed that all subjects are taught, with a higher share in urban (97%) than rural areas (90%). Learners have supported this view but to a slightly lesser extent (81%). Especially in rural areas, learners appear to be not fully informed about the curriculum since almost 10% indicated that they don't know whether all subjects are taught. The share is much lower in urban areas (2%).

Photo 3 Classroom still in use

Photo: Klaus Schade

3.3. Absenteeism of teaching staff

Besides the learner-to-teacher ratio and the qualification and experience of teaching staff, the efficient use of teachers and principals will have a bearing on the outcome of education. Absenteeism of teachers is often cited as being a problem. The survey found out that 50% of all principals do not see it as a problem and another 38% only as a moderate problem. However, there are differences between rural and urban areas. A quarter of principals in urban areas regard absenteeism as a very serious problem and another 7% as a serious problem while these two categories together account for only 6% of all responses in rural areas. School inspectors are apparently more critical about absenteeism. 52% of them consider it a serious or very serious problem in their area. Educational directors are even more

concerned about absenteeism. Two thirds see it as a serious problem but it appears not to be a problem at all for the director in only one region.

However, measures are in place at schools to deal with teachers that are absent without valid reason. The provisions of the Public Service Act – oral and written warnings - are almost always enforced. Only 7% of the principals indicated that this is not always the case. There were only four cases of teachers being suspended because of absenteeism or misconduct. However, there are reportedly – though very few - cases of principals or teachers who have not been at school for months. It transpired from other interviews that disciplinary procedures are a quite lengthy process and at the end of it often no disciplinary measures are taken. It is therefore suggested to train a few persons in the head office of the ministry to deal exclusively with disciplinary cases in the whole country. Their training combined with increasing experience will result in a more speedy process of dealing with disciplinary cases.

The learners generally back the responses from principals. While 60% of them indicated that the teacher is sometimes absent, more than half of these also indicated that this is only seldom the case. According to responses from learners more teachers teaching in their classes at rural than at urban schools were absent during the previous week – 11% compared to 8% (Table A23). On average, almost one day was lost at rural schools during the week before the interview took place, because of absenteeism compared to 0.7 days on average at urban schools.

Reasons for absenteeism

Responses from learners about absent teachers have not distinguished the reasons for the absenteeism. Teachers could be absent because of official work – such as attendance of workshops – or due to personal reasons – such as illness or attendance of funerals. Almost 35% of teachers and 61% of principals were absent for at least a day during the month of June 2003 because of official duties. In addition, 19% of teachers did not attend to classes during the same period because of personal matters. This is particularly a problem at rural schools where 21% of teachers were absent due to personal matters and 41% due to official duties. The figures for urban schools are considerably lower – 12% and 18% respectively (Table A22).

The attendance of funerals is the main reason for absenteeism because of personal matters (62%). It ranks higher in rural areas than in urban – 69% and 29% respectively. Own illness and the illness of others are the next two relevant causes. The remoteness of schools - and subsequently the lack of infrastructure and transport - contributes in some areas to absenteeism. Banking facilities - though the coverage is improving - are often far away from schools as are shops. Thus, teachers have to leave schools for often two or more days to withdraw money, to pay their accounts or for other errands. The lack of transport adds to this. Teachers have often to walk to the nearest main road to get a lift to town. These are not major issues in urban areas and thus there is less of a need for being absent during working hours.

Attending workshops or carrying out other official duties is likewise a more time consuming task for teachers and principals from rural than from urban areas because of the travel distance and the lack of transport. Consequently, teachers from rural schools were absent during June on average almost two days compared to 0.8 days in urban areas. The same trend is observed for principals who were absent for about 2.3 days on average in rural areas and 1.1 days in urban areas. These figures refer to a reference period of a month and to the absenteeism of the interviewee himself. The findings are supported when teachers are asked how many of their colleagues are absent today. On average 6.7% of all teachers were absent at rural schools compared to 3.3% at urban schools. The results indicate that more teachers at rural schools are absent and for a longer period than at urban schools (Table A24). On the other hand, principals at rural schools view absenteeism as less a problem than their counterparts in urban areas. This might indicate that absenteeism in rural areas is seen as normal rather than something one needs to be concerned about.

Photo 4 First classroom

Photo: Klaus Schade

While official duties and emergencies are generally acceptable reasons for absenteeism others are not. 26% of principals have received reports that teachers are at school but do not attend to classes. The magnitude is more or less in line with responses from pupils about teachers not attending to classes (32%). According to responses from principals, this is to a larger extent the case in urban (39% of principals received reports) than in rural areas (22%), while more students in rural than in urban areas confirmed this – 34% compared to 28%. Generally, this attitude is seen by principals as not being a serious problem and at almost all schools measures are in place to deal with such incidences. These measures include monitoring and visiting classrooms by the principal or Head of Department and reports from the class captains or learners in general. Still, the responses

indicate that this practice is widespread and more efforts need to be put in place to reduce these incidences of a lack of dedication.

Valuable time is lost because of absenteeism and a lack of discipline. Furthermore, the practise of writing pre-examinations during August could also be reconsidered since about a week is lost. Learners sit idle while teachers invigilate examinations or mark examination papers. This is compounded by delays in delivering the tests to schools from the inspectors or regional education offices. Often the principal or a teacher needs to drive to the nearest office to pick up the copies while other teachers and learners are just waiting.

Teaching staff could be distracted from teaching because of other income generating activities. The Public Service Act, 1995, stipulates that "unless it is otherwise provided for in his or her conditions of service – (b) no staff member or member of services shall perform or engage himself or herself to perform remunerative work at any time outside his or her employment in the Public Service (Government Gazette, 1995)". However, the Permanent Secretary can grant permission to pursue other remunerative work unless it hampers the performance. The survey found out that almost every third principal in urban areas has other sources of income but only 16% in rural areas. The same trend is observed for teachers. 22% of them in urban areas have additional sources of income compared to 9% in rural areas. Most of them spend less than two hours per week on these activities – mainly during the weekend or during school holidays. 75% of teachers with additional income in the Khomas region earn this income from teaching outside the school. Agriculture is the major additional activity for teachers and principals in rural areas.

The survey has neither revealed whether these additional activities have an impact on the performance of staff nor whether permission was sought and granted as stipulated in the Act. It is assumed that regular commitments during the week will have a greater impact on performance than weekend and seasonal activities. It is hence recommended that principals and Regional Education Directors follow up on such cases and verify whether the stipulations of the Act have been adhered to.

3.4. Institutional support

School Inspectors

Support mechanisms are in place for teachers and principals to improve the quality of education and school management. Teacher resource centres across the country provide in-service training. In some regions, advisory teachers visit schools to observe teaching methods and provide advice. This role is however not limited to advisory teachers. The Presidential Commission on Education, Culture and Training regards school inspectors much more as educational professionals who provide in-service training to teachers and who are involved in the work of curriculum renewal rather than as administrators (Government of the Republic of

Namibia 1999:85). In reality however, 77% of school inspectors see themselves mainly involved in administrative tasks – which might include curriculum development – but rarely involved in providing support to teachers.

The number of visits a school inspector can pay to each school depends on the number of schools in his circuit and the travelling distance. The number of schools per inspector differs substantially between regions. The regions with the highest number are also the regions with longest travelling distances. Inspectors spend at least an hour on the road to reach a rural school, sometimes even several hours. In urban areas the travelling time is just up to half an hour[5].

Long distances are often compounded by a lack of infrastructure such as service stations. Service stations are sometimes more than 100 km away, which limits the area a school inspector can cover. In addition, valuable working time is spent on getting fuel from far away. Arrangements with other government agencies closer to the circuit office – such as police stations – could be considered to increase the efficiency.

Table 8 Average number of schools per inspector by region

Region	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana
Average number of schools	19.3	41.8	25.8	25.3	21.0	33.0	41.0

School Inspectors are apparently more active at rural than urban schools, but are mainly in contact with principals. Principals of rural schools were visited on average twice by the inspector between January and June 2003 compared to 1.4 times for urban schools. Teachers indicated for the same period 1.7 visits to rural schools and 0.61 visits to urban. The differences in responses between principals and teachers are indicative of the priorities of the visits that are administrative rather than visits to provide support to teachers. The frequency of visits might also not be representative for other years since new school boards had to be elected during the first half of 2003. This made more visits necessary to discuss the procedures and meet with the newly elected school board.

Furthermore, inspectors spent more time during their visits at rural than urban schools. 72% of the principals at urban schools indicated that the inspector stayed less than half a day and another 17% that he stayed half day. The shares are 60% and 9% respectively for rural schools. Otherwise, inspectors spent more than half a day at the school. Despite the remoteness of many rural schools they benefited more from the support of inspectors than urban schools. Since rural schools have less access to regional offices than urban schools, regular visits by school inspectors provides the opportunity to stay in contact. However, the visits are rarely

[5] The Kunene region is excluded from the analysis since the school inspectors are still based in Swakopmund. The results for the Omaheke region have also to be taken with some caution since one of the inspectors interviewed is based in Windhoek which adds to the travelling time.

recorded. In only one third of all cases reports were available while in the majority of cases no reports were written. It is recommended that brief reports are compiled after each visit to highlight the topics discussed and decisions made. That would improve follow-ups especially in the case of changes in personnel – for instance a new principal or a new inspector is appointed. Reports could also be forwarded to the regional office to update the regional director on developments at schools.

Regional Education Director

Visits by the Regional Education Director follow the same patterns of visits by inspectors, though the frequency is of course much lower. Rural schools were visited on average 0.3 times during the first half of 2003 – meaning that every third school in rural areas was visited by the director compared to every sixth school in urban areas. Most of the visits took up to half a day – 64% in rural areas and 75% in urban areas respectively. However again, in 69% of all visits no reports were written.

Overall, schools are satisfied with the support they receive from the regional office. 38% of principals rated the support as being good and 35% as satisfactory, while 20% were not satisfied. The main reason for not being satisfied is poor communication between the regional office and the principal. Others feel that the offices do not pay sufficient attention to the needs of schools – such as the provision of material – and do not visit schools. The latter one is not surprising for regions with a large number of schools. As for school inspectors, the number of schools the directors are responsible for differs enormously between the regions, ranging from 43 to 330. Hence, it is rarely possible for some directors to visit each school in their region every year. Therefore, school inspectors play an important role in linking schools with regional offices to ensure that schools do not lose contact.

Table 9 Number of schools per educational region

Regional code	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana
Number of schools	58	330	74	52	43	265	129

3.5. Learners

It is not only the input into education that government provides that determines the outcome but also the environment learners are living in and their dedication. A considerable number of learners come hungry to school, which has a negative impact on their ability to concentrate on the subjects. About a quarter of all learners in rural areas come to schools hungry according to teachers, while principals estimate the share even at a third. Based on responses from principals and teachers the share is only slightly lower in urban areas, while learners estimate the share of their hungry classmates in urban schools at about 13%. The regions worst affected by hunger are Kunene – about 50% of school children are hungry – and Kavango - about 40% (Table A26). Reportedly, the share of hungry pupils is much

higher towards the end of the dry season. The school feeding programme mitigates certainly the worst effects, but it seems that not all learners who are in need benefit.

Tiredness is another factor that negatively influences the ability to learn. About 15% - according to teachers – and 20% - according to principals – of students arrive tired at schools. Learners themselves estimate that some 10% of their classmates come tired to school. Students at rural schools in the Kavango and Omusati regions are worst affected than their counterparts at urban schools in the Khomas and Hardap regions (Table A25). One would assume that tiredness is caused by long walking distances, but that does not hold in all cases, since the share of students being tired is estimated by both – teachers and principals – about five percentage points higher in urban than in rural areas.

Finally, absenteeism of learners is more often the case at rural schools than at urban, though the share is well below ten percent (Table A27). This finding has however to be qualified on two grounds and is hence not necessarily representative for the whole school year. Firstly, the survey was conducted during the time of pre-examinations. During this period, almost all learners in Grade 10 and 12 were present. Secondly, the survey continued after school holidays and learners do not always return in time but sometimes arrive only a week later. The late arrival after holidays cannot exclusively be explained by a lack of transport but can also be seen as an indication of the dedication to education by both, learners and parents. It is recommended to open hostels a few days before the start of the new term so that learners are more flexible in returning to school and can avoid the main rush on the last day of school holidays. Measures need to be put in place to deal with pupils who arrive late since it affects the learning – and the discipline - of other students as well.

4. Availability of material and equipment

The main budget item after personnel expenditure is the item ‘materials and supplies’, which refers mainly to the supply of textbooks and stationery. The survey has focused specifically on the provision of these two items since a market exists for both goods and thus the possibility of diversion of resources exists as well.

There is agreement between all groups of interviewees that schools are not satisfactorily equipped. In particular, respondents in rural areas are dissatisfied. About 20% of learners at rural schools are satisfied with the equipment compared to 28% of principals and 14% of teachers. The share of satisfaction is much higher for urban areas, namely 58%, 46% and 47% respectively. However, there are stark contrasts between regions and between government and private schools in urban areas. 88% of learners and of teachers and 100% of principals at private schools in urban areas are satisfied with the equipment, while two thirds of students and 50% of teachers in the Khomas region are happy with the equipment (Table A28).

Only a minority of interviewees feel the equipment deteriorated in 2003 compared to the previous year. More or less half of each group interviewed, felt that there was no change and between a quarter and a third is of the opinion that there was an improvement (Table A29). Apparently, improvements have benefited Kunene more than other regions. Except for private schools, this region received the best ranking from learners, principals and teachers alike.

The shortage of textbooks is identified as the shortage that affects the quality of education most severely. The share of respondents that pointed at textbooks rarely differs between the three groups, ranging from 54% (teachers) to 60% (learners). The importance of textbooks in providing quality education is also recognised by school inspectors and regional education directors. 60% and 100% of them respectively regard this as the most severe shortage.

4.1. Textbooks and stationery

Textbooks and stationery are important inputs into education. They enable learners to repeat what they have learned and to prepare for examinations. Textbooks help students to study independently and to add further knowledge to what they are taught at school. Thus, textbooks and stationery have received specific attention in the survey.

Textbooks and stationery are sourced in different ways. While private companies bid for tenders to supply all primary or secondary schools across the country for three years with textbooks, stationery is ordered from government stores. As described above, schools are allocated a certain amount per learner per year that can be spent on textbooks and on stationery. The amount for textbooks is higher for secondary than for primary schools primarily because textbooks especially for IGCSE and HIGCSE subjects are bought in overseas – partly in the UK - and are hence expensive. Schools are provided with a catalogue compiled by NIED of all textbooks recommended and their prices. They order according to the catalogue up to the maximum amount that is based on the number of learners and the amount per learner.

The intention of the survey was to compare the amount allocated to schools by the regional office with the value of textbooks ordered and finally received. This was, however, almost impossible, since records kept at schools and regional offices were at least incomplete. Most of the schools do not keep copies of their orders and can therefore not compare the deliveries with what had been ordered. Although not all schools have a photocopier, the circuit offices do have one so that it would be possible to make copies there. Schools need to sign the delivery note on receipt of textbooks and receive a copy. However, these delivery notes are not always filed systematically. The distributor also sends a signed copy to the regional office to authorise payment.

A comparison of the data collected mainly at the regional office and partly from schools reveals that the value of textbooks ordered is often less than the allocation. Furthermore, the value of textbooks received is again less than the value of books ordered. Table A30 illustrates the findings for some regions although the data available does not allow for a more substantial analysis. The difference in the value of textbooks received and ordered can be explained with the discount the distributor offers. Though over 90% of principals indicated that they are aware of the final purchasing price for textbooks and stationery, they are probably not aware of this discount. Therefore, schools often do not exhaust the amounts allocated for textbooks even if they are facing textbook shortages. The remaining amount is often used by regional offices to purchase additional textbooks that are then distributed amongst schools. It can reasonably be assumed that schools that do not know about this procedure, that do not keep records of their textbook orders and that do not have close contact with the regional office receive fewer textbooks than they could based on the allocation.

Availability of English and mathematic textbooks

Based on a sample of textbooks for two major subjects – English and mathematics – there is no discrepancy in the availability of textbooks per learner between rural and urban areas. On average, 0.65 English textbooks are available for both – rural and urban – learners, meaning that three learners share two textbooks. However, this ratio of three learners sharing two textbooks is actually worse since often two textbooks per subject and grade are used. This would result in six learners using the same textbook. The ratio for mathematics textbooks is also almost the same for rural and urban schools but lower than for English textbooks, namely about 0.58. The average ratio however covers regional differences. While there are about eight English textbooks available for ten learners in the Hardap region, the same number of learners in the Kunene and Oshana regions has access to only about five textbooks. Similar patterns are found for mathematics textbooks. Overall, pupils in the Hardap region are equipped with 20% more books than the national average, while pupils in the Oshana region are obviously worst off. They have access to 15% less textbooks than the national average. Finally, learners at private schools are best equipped with textbooks, if they do not have to buy the books themselves (Table A31).

The findings are corroborated by responses from learners. Only 17% of learners at rural schools in the Kunene region are of the opinion that there are enough mathematic textbooks available, followed by 40% and 41% in the Oshana and Omusati regions respectively. Overall, students in rural areas feel to a far greater degree that they do not have enough textbooks than students in urban areas. Certain regions, such as Kunene, Oshana and Omusati, are much worse off than Hardap, Khomas and Omaheke (Table A32).

Furthermore, the average figures conceal considerable differences between schools in each region. While there are 0.66 English textbooks on average per learner in the Omaheke region, 20% of schools can provide learners with more than one textbook

while 50% of schools have less than 0.5 textbooks per learner – meaning at least two learners have to share one book. The inequality in the distribution of textbooks is also striking in the Khomas region. On average 0.67 English textbooks are available per student but at 13% of the schools learners have access to more than one textbook and at 47% of schools to less than 0.5 books per student. On the other hand, in the Kunene region that has the lowest average of English textbooks per learner, there is no school that could provide more than one book to each student. However, there are also relatively few schools with less than 0.5 books per pupil, indicating that the few textbooks are more or less equally distributed among all schools. The distribution of mathematic textbooks follows similar patterns (Table A33).

The inequality in the availability of textbooks needs urgent attention. It is recommended that the number of textbooks per learner for each school is established based on the school inventory or records of stock taking. Once concrete figures are available, it should be considered to provide schools that have on average considerably fewer textbooks per learner with additional funds to purchase textbooks. The additional funds could be financed through cuts in the allocation to schools with a number of textbooks that is substantially above average. This measure could be introduced for one year to bring schools on a more equal footing. It needs, however, to be ensured that all schools keep proper records of textbooks and are accountable for textbooks lost or damaged.

In addition, better off schools can be encouraged to twin with worse off schools and share resources that are relatively abundant at the one school but scarce at the other.

Replacement of textbooks

Textbooks are meant to last five years before they are replaced. However, the life span is often much shorter since they are used by more than one learner and since they are not always taken care off. In addition, the new quality requirements of government do not apply for reprints for which paper of a lower quality is used. This also reduces the life span.

It is government policy that learners or their parents have to replace textbooks and other material that they have damaged or lost. According to the survey, this policy is not always followed. 13% and 5% of learners in rural and urban areas respectively indicated that lost or damaged textbooks are not replaced and an additional 14% and 13% respectively indicated that only some do replace textbooks. The analysis of teachers' and principals' responses is less favourable. They estimate that only about 44% and 35% of learners respectively replace textbooks. The policy is more strictly enforced in urban than in rural areas. In particular, in poorer regions – Kavango and Kunene – only few pupils pay for lost or damaged textbooks (Table A34). Though it is understandable that parents who are struggling to make a living from subsistence farming cannot pay for textbooks, it appears to be important to enforce the policy to increase the awareness of the value of educational material.

Lost or damaged textbooks do not only deprive the student who lost the book of the opportunity to read but also all other learners he or she is sharing the book with. It could be argued that a strict enforcement will result in poor families no longer sending their children to school since they can not afford bearing all the costs. However, these are additional costs caused by the carelessness of learners and can thus be avoided.

Photo 5 Wooden classroom structure[6]

Photo: Klaus Schade

Late delivery of textbooks

Of concern for most principals is the late delivery of textbooks that sometimes arrive after the beginning of the new school year. The late delivery can in part be explained by the ordering procedures. Most textbooks for primary schools are printed in Namibia, while textbooks for secondary schools are either ordered in South Africa or – especially for IGCSE and HIGCSE subjects – in Great Britain. Once the Namibian distributor of textbooks has received the order forms from regional offices and verified the quantities and prices, orders are placed with the publishers. Some textbooks can be out of stock and need to be reprinted. The reprint of textbooks depends on the quantity ordered. If only a small quantity of a specific textbook is ordered, it will not be economically viable to reprint it. Instead, the publisher waits for further orders before he decides whether or not to go ahead

[6] The building was previously used as a classroom, but now as a store room.

with a reprint. The quantity of Namibian orders is usually rather small for publishers in South Africa and Great Britain that supply much larger markets. Furthermore, the school term in Great Britain starts in August and not in January. Thus, decisions about reprints are often only made at the beginning of a calendar year when orders from their schools are placed. There is little chance that Namibian distributors can influence large publishers in these two countries to print textbooks in time for the Namibian school year. Hence, the distributor is in limbo as to whether textbooks that are out of stock at the time of the order will be available later on and in time for the new school year. It is therefore advisable that the distributor informs the school and regional office immediately about textbooks that are currently not available so that they can order alternative books.

Apparently, sometimes textbooks are listed in NIED's catalogue that are out of print. If schools order these books, they will need to replace these orders at a later stage which will cause delays in the order and delivery procedures. It is therefore recommended that the catalogue is screened by textbook distributors and publishers before it is circulated to schools to ensure that all books listed are still available.

Finally, there are sometimes complains that schools receive fewer books than ordered. This can be caused by recent price increases and exchange rate fluctuations that reduce the quantity of books that can be purchased for a specific amount. There is little one can do against exchange rate fluctuations that influence the price of books ordered from overseas or price increases by publishers abroad. Again, carefully scrutinising the textbook catalogue before its circulation to schools can ensure that the prices mentioned are the current prices. Namibian publishers should be bound by these prices for the whole year.

Stationery

The provision of stationery is of concern. There are almost no delivery notes found at schools and regional offices. The few delivery notes traced contained only the amount of material delivered but no price. Thus, it is impossible for the school and regional office to reconcile supplies with budget allocations. Furthermore, supplies from the government store have not been included in the current Integrated Financial System. Thus, the ministry has no knowledge about the value of stationery supplied to the regions. Since there is a market for school stationery, it is recommended that proper control procedures are put in place to avoid any diversion of material. As it is the case with the supply of textbooks, schools should sign an invoice upon receipt of the material that contains the quantity and value. A copy of this signed receipt should be sent to the regional office for control purposes. The recently launched new Integrated Financial Management System will enable the ministry to control the expenditure for stationery by regions much better.

4.2. Facilities and equipment

The most important facility is certainly a classroom for each class. We came across only one school where learners are still taught under a tree, though this is reportedly not an isolated case. Classrooms were available at all other schools but these are not always permanent structures but buildings made from wooden poles or clay. Most schools have one classroom for each class. But in the Hardap, Kunene and Kavango regions more classes had to share one classroom – either at the same time or because the school introduced morning and afternoon classes. The ratio of classrooms per class at rural schools in these areas is about 0.8 – meaning that five classes have to share four classrooms on average. Urban schools are a little bit better equipped with classrooms. However, the Khomas region has fewer classrooms per class than the average for urban schools, most likely because Windhoek has to cope with a large influx of learners every year.

Availability of other facilities and equipment

Concerning other facilities, urban schools are generally better equipped than rural schools. 82% of them have sufficient toilets and almost all are flushable toilets. Only 59% of rural schools are sufficiently equipped with toilets that are usually pit latrines (62%). While all urban schools have access to piped water, this is the case for only 56% of rural schools. Another 20% receive their water from boreholes, 7% from rivers or ponds and 16% have no drinking water at all. Furthermore, all but one urban school are connected to the national electricity grid, but only 52% of rural schools. Subsequently, by far less overhead projectors, photocopiers and computers are found at rural schools compared to urban schools. This equipment is not only unequally distributed between rural and urban areas but also between regions. While there are on average 4.75 computers per urban school these are exclusively found in the Hardap, Khomas and Omaheke regions. In comparison, the average number of computers per rural school is 0.11 – meaning that on average every ninth school has one computer.

The ratio for photocopiers and overhead projectors follows similar patterns. On average, there are about 1.8 and 4.4 respectively available at urban schools compared to about 0.5 at rural schools. Again, Hardap, Khomas and Omaheke are much better equipped than the other regions. Learners in the Omusati and Oshana regions have rarely seen a projector. On average, every 20th and 13th school respectively has one overhead projector (Table A35).

The same applies to libraries. 86% of urban schools have a library compared to every second school in rural areas. Again, the Omusati and Oshana regions are worse off.

Finally, while 80% of schools in rural and urban areas have a sports ground, the kind of sports grounds differ considerably. In rural areas it is often a plain, sandy field used for all sorts of sports activities, while urban schools usually have well established soccer and/or rugby fields with separate areas for athletics.

Use of facilities and equipment

It would be a waste of resources if facilities and equipment are not used. The survey found that both are frequently used. According to responses from learners more than 85% of them use the sports ground at least once a week if not more often. Libraries and laboratories are used similarly, although the frequency is slightly lower in rural areas. Overhead projectors are used less frequently in particular in rural areas. Only 45% of schools that do have projectors use them at least once a week.

4.3. Stocktaking and inventory

Control of material and equipment is essential to use scarce resources efficiently. It appears that the instruments are in place. Over 90% of teachers and principals at rural schools confirmed that stock is regularly taken, while this is the case at fewer schools in urban areas (Table A36). Stock is less regular taken in the Khomas region than in other regions. At most schools in rural areas stock is taken every term, while at urban schools once a year. Furthermore, around 80% of schools compile inventories of their equipment. Contrary to stock taking this is more often the case at urban than at rural schools (Table A37). Except for the Omusati region where inventories are less common, there are no major discrepancies between regions. Following the patterns of stock taking, the inventory is mainly updated annually (in urban areas) or every term (in rural areas). About a quarter of schools update the inventory with each new entry.

On average, regional offices receive inventories from about two-thirds of schools, but it is not a wide-spread practice in the Omaheke and Omusati regions. It is common that the inventory is controlled annually by the regional office or the school inspector. To ensure that the equipment that schools have received is also available it is recommended that all schools compile inventories that are controlled by the school inspector, who visits schools more regularly than staff from regional offices and that the inventory is compared with the deliveries from government stores and other sources such as donors. Regular stock taking is also recommended in the own interest of schools so that they know exactly what is available before they place their orders.

5. School management

Efficient management of any organisation influences the quality of its output. That applies to schools as well. The management of schools is more favourably rated by learners and teachers than by school inspectors and Regional Education Directors. About 85% of learners rate the management as either good or excellent compared to 75% of the teachers. Inspectors and regional directors are more critical about the performance of school management. The management of up to 25% of schools is rated as being either hardly satisfactory or even very poor. Only one third of schools received a good or excellent rating from the director and 47% of the schools from the inspector (Table A38). The qualification of the management is cited as one of the main reasons for not being satisfied with the performance, while in other instances the management creates the impression that it pursues other businesses. Based on these findings it is recommended that this area receives more attention. In particular, the school inspector can play a vital role since he is more often in contact with schools. He can monitor the performance through own observations and meetings with learners, teachers and school board members and can offer assistance and advice to the management. Additional training should be offered to strengthen the administrative and financial capacity of school management including the school board.

Photo 6 Sports ground

Photo: Klaus Schade

Note: The photo was taken in the Omusati region but sport grounds in other rural areas look alike.

The flow of information at schools seems to be ensured. Principals give regular briefings at almost all schools – 80% of rural and 100% of urban schools. These

briefings are held in the majority of schools every morning and only at a few schools (about 10%) less than once a week. In addition, regular meetings are held usually once a month or once in a term. At almost 50% of schools these meetings last between one and two hours and at another 30% more than two hours. In more than 90% of all cases minutes are always taken and in only very few schools – mainly in rural areas – never. Some three quarters of all principals and teachers confirmed that the minutes are always circulated. It is less the case at rural schools because they often do not have electricity and a photocopier. When minutes are not circulated, they are usually available in a folder with the secretary or the principal. Despite regular meetings and briefings, teachers are not always aware of financial resources available at the school and the budgeting or planning process (see also Section 2). To ensure that funds are efficiently used, to inform teachers about available resources and to strengthen the competence in financial matters it is recommended that reporting on finances is always part of the agenda for meetings.

The School Board

School Boards can play an important role in managing and developing the school including monitoring its performance. According to the Education Act all public schools are requested to establish School Boards that are chaired by a parent who is not a principal or teacher at the school. Based on the responses from school board members, some school boards at rural schools are chaired by the principal (10%) or a teacher (6%) while all other boards at rural schools and exclusively at urban schools are headed by a parent. During the first half of 2003, School Boards met roughly three times, slightly more often in rural than in urban areas. On average, at least three quarters of the school board members attended the meetings. The reference period of the survey covered the election of new school board members that resulted in additional school board activities – termination of the office term of the old school board, preparation of the election of new school board members, introduction of new school board members about their role, etc. Therefore, the frequency of meetings was most likely higher than it would have usually been the case.

From the interviews it became evident that school board members would need training in particular in financial matters to play the role they are supposed to play. Interviewees were not always aware of procedures in place and of the availability of material and equipment at schools.

6. Performance indicators

We have selected three indicators to analyse the performance of schools – promotion rates for Grade 10 and 12 for December 2002, drop out rates and repetition rates for 2003. Promotion rate refers to the share of learners that have achieved the requirements for continuing with the next grade or with an institution of higher learning. A more detailed analysis of the promotion rates was however not possible because of the low number of cases. Schools for the sample were selected from the total number of schools without distinguishing between primary, combined and secondary schools. Out of the 114 schools, 15 schools were secondary and 24 schools were combined schools. Because of the low number of schools that offered Grade 10 or Grade 12, the results for some regions are not necessarily representative for the whole region. Therefore, the results were not analysed on a regional level. The analysis on a more aggregate level - urban and rural schools – reveals that promotion rates are lower at rural than urban schools for both grades (Table 10).

Table 10 Promotion rates for rural and urban schools, December 2002

	Grade 10	Grade 12
rural	44.60	40.75
urban	64.90	55.00
total	50.40	46.86

Repetition rates of learners are 50% higher at rural than at urban schools. On average 15% of all learners at rural schools repeated the grade during 2003 compared to 11% at urban schools. Rural schools in the Kavango (17%) and Omusati (19%) regions are more affected than rural schools in the Hardap (9%), Oshana (12%) and Kunene (12%) regions. On the other hand, urban schools in the Hardap, Kunene and Omaheke regions have higher repetition rates than rural schools in these regions. These diverse trends would need further investigation before conclusions can be drawn (Table 11).

Table 11 Repetition rate by region and by rural and urban schools

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Average*
Rural	8.61%	17.26%		11.99%	15.44%	18.81%	11.61%	15.37%
Urban	11.26%		8.93%	16.27%	17.01%		4.53%	10.54%
Total average	9.71%	17.26%	8.93%	12.85%	15.91%	18.81%	10.60%	14.17%

*Note: The average excludes private schools.

Similar results are obtained from the analysis of learners who dropped out from school. Overall, the share of learners who dropped out is slightly higher in rural areas than in urban – 2.5% compared to 2.2%. However, this pattern is not consistent throughout all regions. The Hardap and Omaheke regions reveal higher drop out rates in urban than rural areas, while Oshana and Omaheke conform to the

overall pattern. Drop out rates in the Kunene region are more than double the national average (Table 12). This can in part be explained with the continuing nomadic lifestyle of the pastoralists in the Kaokoland. The introduction of mobile schools will make education more accessible to these families and can contribute to reducing drop out rates. The main reason mentioned for girls to drop out is pregnancy in all regions, even for girls at the age of 12 years.

Table 12 Drop out rates of learners by region and rural and urban schools

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Average*
Rural	1.00%	2.43%		5.60%	4.10%	1.29%	2.63%	2.48%
Urban	1.26%		1.81%	7.33%	2.18%		1.57%	2.15%
Total average	1.11%	2.43%	1.81%	5.94%	3.52%	1.29%	2.48%	2.40%

*Note: The average excludes private schools.

Private schools are doing much better concerning both indicators than government schools. Only 3% of their learners repeated the grade in 2003 and none dropped out.

Quality of teaching

The overwhelming majority of learners rate the quality of teaching as either excellent or good (87%) and only very few are not at all satisfied (6%). Students at rural schools are, however, less satisfied than their counterparts at urban schools. 83% of learners at rural schools regard the quality as at least good and 7% as not satisfactory compared to 95% and 3% respectively at urban schools. Students who are not satisfied are mainly concerned about teachers who are not interested in teaching and about the lack of educational material. Feedback from school board members reveals similar patterns. 78% and 89% in rural and urban areas respectively rate the quality of teaching as good or excellent and only 5% and 11% respectively are not satisfied mainly because they have doubts about the qualification of teachers.

It becomes evident that urban schools perform much better based on these indicators than rural schools (for an overview Table A39). It should, however, also be noted that not only the input of financial and human resources influences the output but also the broader environment in which learning takes place. The regard of the community for the school and the support learners receive at home are just but two factors that play a role in the performance of pupils. More research is certainly needed to establish the contribution of each of these factors to the final performance of the school.

7. Conclusions and recommendations

Government has spent considerable amounts of money on improving educational facilities and the qualification of teaching staff. New schools and classrooms have been built in particular in the previously neglected regions. Teachers are encouraged and supported to upgrade their qualification. A nation-wide learner-to-teacher ratio and a budget allocation per learner for ordering textbooks and stationery have been introduced to ensure an equal distribution of available resources throughout the country. Though Namibia has spent a high share of GDP on education in international comparison, the results are rather mixed. Some output indicators have improved in the beginning of the 1990s but have declined in recent years. Furthermore, the survey reveals that considerable gaps continue to exist between rural and urban areas and between regions, concerning the availability of resources (Table A39). The following conclusions and recommendations address the most relevant issues.

1. In international comparison, Namibia has spent a high share of GDP on education, but the results are rather mixed. It could however not be proven that this is due to leakages of financial resources within the budget lines scrutinised. That no proof for leakages was found is mainly owed to incomplete or non-existing records at various levels that made a comparison of information received from different levels difficult. However, a lack of proper control because of a lack of records can lead to the misuse of resources. It is therefore strongly recommended that schools introduce a systematic filing system for all invoices and delivery notes. A systematic filing system is in the best interest of schools since it will enable them to follow up on orders placed and ensure that they receive materials and supplies according to their allocations. In order for regional offices to control allocations and deliveries to schools and to verify school complaints about non-deliveries of material and equipment, the accuracy of records at most regional offices needs to be strengthened.

2. Few receipts for the provision of stationery were found, at schools and at regional offices. To avoid the possibility of diverting material from government stores the same procedures that are in place for private textbook suppliers should be applied to government stores. Delivery notes indicating the number and value of material supplied to schools should be issued, signed by schools on receipt and copies should be filed at schools and regional offices.

3. Though the amount for textbooks and stationery per learner allocated to schools applies to all schools the actual financial resources available at schools differ considerably because of the income from the School Development Fund. This increases the gaps between schools in areas marked by poverty and schools in areas with a wealthy neighbourhood. Government could consider two ways of addressing this issue. Firstly,

Government co-finances the SDF for schools with an income from the SDF that is far below the regional and or national average. Secondly, it uses the proposed Education Development Fund to pay the fees for parents that are exempt from paying school fees. The implication on the budget allocation to the ministry needs to be established.

4. To increase the efficient use of utilities and to level out the disadvantage that schools are facing that are not connected to electricity and water, it is recommended that all schools are allocated a certain amount per learner for utilities. It is up to the school to decide how to use these funds – for electricity, water, additional textbooks, stationery and/or other equipment. Schools will not be bailed out by regional offices if they exceed their allocations.

5. To ensure that financial resources – especially from the SDF - are used for the intended purposes, proper auditing procedures need to be put in place and monitored by regional offices. In addition, the training of School Board members – in particular in financial matters - needs to be intensified so that they can control and monitor the use of financial resources.

6. Teachers and school board members should be trained in taking stock and compiling inventories of the equipment at schools. Proper records are also in the interest of the school since they can base additional demands on these records.

7. The inequality amongst schools concerning the availability of textbooks per learner is striking. It is therefore recommended that data is collected for all schools and additional funds are allocated to schools with the worst ratio of textbooks per learner. On the other hand, savings can be secured by cutting the allocation to schools that are equipped with textbooks above the national or regional average for one year. Furthermore it should be considered using remaining funds from this budget line to exclusively provide schools with additional educational material that have the worst material-to-learner ratio. The proper use of these resources should be controlled by checking inventories regularly.

8. The twinning of better-off schools and worse-off schools within a region or between regions should be encouraged to share resources more equally and to share best experiences in school management.

9. The replacement of equipment and material damaged or lost by students should be enforced since it deprives other learners of educational material as well and adds to financial constraints.

10. To reduce delays in the supply of textbooks to schools it is recommended that the textbook catalogue compiled by NIED is screened by the textbook publishers and distributors before it is circulated to schools. This would

ensure that only textbooks are listed that are still available and that all prices are correct. Furthermore, distributors could inform schools if books that are ordered are not in stock and about the probability that these books will be available in time. Schools could then decide whether to order alternative books or to take the risk that books arrive late or are eventually not available at all.

11. Teachers at urban schools are better qualified and more experienced than teachers at rural schools. Government could consider providing incentives for teachers to work in rural areas. This could include explicit direct financial incentives for teaching staff working in rural areas and the provision of accommodation. However, since financial incentives are not the only factor influencing the decision to work in rural areas a small survey amongst teachers could be carried out to establish what would attract them to work in rural areas.

12. Information concerning the number of teaching staff employed at a school was in most cases inconsistent. To avoid staff being on the payroll who is no longer in the employ of the ministry or no longer employed at that specific school, information about staff fluctuation needs to be updated at all levels as soon as possible and verified regularly.

13. Since disciplinary cases often drag on for a long time, it could be considered to establish a special unit within the ministry that deals with all disciplinary cases in the country. The unit would be able to deal more efficiently and rapidly with disciplinary cases because of the special training received and experience gained.

14. To improve the efficiency and effectiveness of budget allocations it is recommended that the use of resources is regularly monitored and evaluated.

Finally, more research needs to be done to link inputs – financial and human resources, material and equipment – to outputs such as promotion rates, drop-out rates and repetition rates.

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Appendix – Detailed Tables

Table A1 Promotion rates, 1994 to 2000

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Grade 1	68.6	83.4	83.6	81.5	80.1	80.4	79.6
Grade 2	79.7	81.3	87.5	87.8	85.9	86.7	86.2
Grade 3	83.8	83.5	85.6	84.9	84.8	87.5	86.1
Grade 4	72.5	74.9	77.5	78.7	79.0	85.2	85.9
Grade 5	74.6	76.0	82.5	81.3	78.4	75.3	72.6
Grade 6	78.1	81.7	83.7	85.1	84.0	83.1	80.1
Grade 7	72.6	76.2	80.3	80.8	82.9	82.5	78.2
Grade 8	73.2	75.2	76.6	77.9	74.4	69.7	69.6
Grade 9	78.0	79.9	80.5	80.9	75.8	74.1	73.4
Grade 10	49.2	50.2	54.5	46.8	51.9	53.7	58.3
Grade 11	93.9	94.2	93.9	94.4	94.2	95.5	95.6

Source: Education Management Information System, 2001

Table A2 Net and gross enrolment rates for 1996 to 2001

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Net	88.8	89.6	88.6	89.0	88.5	87.9
Gross	103.7	103.3	100.6	99.8	98.8	97.8

Source: Education Management Information System, various years

Table A3 Number of schools and sample size for the regions selected

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private
Total number of schools	58	330	74	52	43	265	129	53
Number of schools selected	12	25	15	11	10	22	14	7
Sample size in %	20.7	7.6	20.3	21.2	24.4	8.3	11.0	13.2

Table A4 Number of interviews planned and conducted

	Actual Number	Intended Number	Share
Regional Education Director	7	7	100%
School Inspector	23	27	85%
Principal	113	116	97%
School Board member	71	116	61%
Teacher	212	232	91%
Head boy/girl	185	232	80%
Total	**611**	**730**	**84%**

Note:
School Board members: Especially in towns difficult to get hold of since they are employed and were not available

Head boy/girl: No interviews were conducted for junior primary schools (Grade 1 to 4).

Table A5 International comparison of education expenditure and output

	1990			1995			2000			2001		
	PSE[1] % GDP	RRP[2] % of enrolment	PCR[3] % Age group	PSE[1] % GDP	RRP[2] % of enrolment	PCR[3] % Age group	PSE[1] % GDP	RRP[2] % of enrolment	PCR[3] % Age group	PEE[4] % of GDP	RRP[2] % of enrolment	PCR[3] % Age group
Botswana	6	5	114	8	3			3	92	2	3	91
Egypt, Arab Rep.	4		77	5				5	90			90
Ghana	3	3	63	5				5	57	4	5	59
Kenya	7		63	6		58	6		42	6		52
Lesotho	6	22	64				10	18	64	10	20	65
Mauritius	4	5	136	4	6		4	4	105	3	4	108
Morocco	5	11		6	12		5	13	61	5	13	63
Namibia	7		70	8	18			13	92	8	13	95
Senegal	4			4	14		3	14	46	3	14	48
South Africa	6		76	6		98		9	90	6		
Swaziland	6	15	71	7	16			16	81	6	17	74
Tunisia	6	20	75	6	17		7	14	91	7	10	96
Uganda	1		49	3		50			61	3		65
Zambia	2			2	3	80		6		2	6	58

Notes:
1 Public Spending on Education, Total (% of GDP),
2 Repetition Rate, Primary (% of total enrolment),
3 Primary Completion Rate, total (% of relevant age group),
4 Based on UNDP 2004. The data refers to the most recent year available between 1999 and 2001
Sources: World Bank 2004, Data for the year 2001 is based on UNDP 2004.

Table A6 Allocation to the Ministry of Basic Education and to specific budget lines, in N$'000 and %

Education Expenditure	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03
Total GRN budget	8,446,912	9,781,989	10,786,339
Total allocation to Basic Education inc. hostels	1,650,524	1,900,016	2,094,418
Total personnel expenditure - Basic Education	1,293,255	1,460,726	1,670,806
Total Materials and Supplies - Basic Education	54,437	62,110	56,371
Total Utilities - Basic Education	39,837	47,075	42,197
Total allocation to hostels*		204,815	197,836
Total allocation to Primary Education	936,931	986,563	1,145,002
Personnel expenditure to Primary Education	813,325	878,096	1,016,091
Materials and Supplies to Primary Education	26,397	29,445	27,030
Utilities - Primary Education	15,408	17,365	15,723
Total allocation to Secondary Education	454,827	432,867	447,774
Personnel expenditure to Secondary Education	324,948	343,903	390,993
Materials and Supplies to Secondary Education	17,924	19,510	17,899
Utilities - Secondary Education	12,187	12,185	11,063
In %			
Allocation to Basic Education as share of total budget	19.5%	19.4%	19.4%
Personnel expenditure as share of total allocation to Basic Education	78.4%	76.9%	79.8%
Total Materials and Supplies as share of total allocation to Basic Education	3.3%	3.3%	2.7%
Total Utilities as a share of total allocation to Basic Education	2.4%	2.5%	2.0%
Total allocation to hostels as share of total allocation to Basic Education*	0.0%	10.8%	9.4%
Total allocation to Primary Education as share of Basic Education budget	56.8%	51.9%	54.7%
Total allocation to Secondary Education as share of Basic Education budget	27.6%	22.8%	21.4%
Personnel expenditure as share of total allocation to Primary Education	86.8%	89.0%	88.7%
Personnel expenditure as share of total allocation to Secondary Education	71.4%	79.4%	87.3%
Materials and Supplies as share of total allocation to Primary Education	2.8%	3.0%	2.4%
Materials and Supplies as share of total allocation to Secondary Education	3.9%	4.5%	4.0%
Utilities as a share of total allocation to Primary Education	1.6%	1.8%	1.4%
Utilities as a share of total allocation to Secondary Education	2.7%	2.8%	2.5%

Source: Republic of Namibia, various years

[1]Note: The budget for Basic Education was calculated by subtracting the budgets for arts, culture and sport from the ministry's total budget. The budget for the office of the minister and for administration was shared between these divisions according to their share of the overall budget.
*'Hostels' was introduced as a new division only in the Financial Year 2001/02.
The figures do not include funds channelled outside the State Revenue Fund to the Ministry.

Table A7 Comparison of allocation from MBESC and use by regional offices

2002-03

Budget item	Kavango		Omusati		Oshana		Keetmanshoop total		Totals	
	Alloc.	Com.	Alloc	Com.	Alloc.	Com.	Alloc	Com.	Alloc	Com.
Travel and Subsistence Allowances	0.0%	-12.1%	0.0%	88.2%	0.0%	3.4%	0.0%	-3.8%	0.0%	10.0%
Materials and Supplies	0.0%	-27.6%	0.0%	-8.6%	0.0%	0.6%	0.0%	-3.0%	0.0%	-11.9%
Transport	0.0%	29.5%	0.0%	34.6%	0.0%	-49.4%	0.0%	-8.8%	0.0%	16.0%
Utilities	0.0%	-48.7%	0.0%	6.4%	0.0%	2.8%	0.0%	-83.7%	0.0%	-56.2%
Maintenance Expenses	0.0%	87.6%	0.0%	26.5%	0.0%	25.5%	0.0%	-6.7%	0.0%	30.3%
Furniture and Office Equipment	0.0%	12.7%	0.0%	91.7%	-13.5%	-18.9%	0.0%	100.0%	-1.5%	30.5%
Total	0.0%	-27.4%	0.0%	1.7%	-0.2%	-0.9%	0.0%	-38.3%	0.0%	-20.5%

Note: Alloc. Allocation: Compares allocation according to MBESC with information about allocation from regional office. 0% indicates that figures do not differ.

Com. Commitment (Use): Compares the actual use of funds as provided by the regional office with the allocation. -12% indicates that funds were overspent by 12%.

2001-02

Budget item	Kavango		Omusati		Oshana		Keetmanshoop total		Totals	
	Alloc	Com.	Alloc	Com.	Alloc.	Com.	Alloc	Com.	Alloc.	Com.
Travel and Subsistence Allowances	0.0%	22.3%	0.0%	81.2%	0.0%	42.5%	0.0%	8.8%	0.0%	33.5%
Materials and Supplies	0.0%	-7.2%	0.0%	-3.2%	0.0%	-13.3%	0.0%	-0.2%	0.0%	-5.6%
Transport	0.0%	34.4%	0.0%	94.8%	0.0%	56.1%	0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	46.2%
Utilities	0.0%	-42.0%	0.0%	39.2%	0.0%	32.4%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	-13.7%
Maintenance Expenses	0.0%	-16.8%	0.0%	-5.5%	0.0%	-36.3%	0.0%	1.9%	0.0%	-8.4%
Furniture and Office Equipment	0.0%	-9.8%	0.0%	28.5%	-37.6%	59.7%	0.0%	14.2%	-4.1%	7.1%
Total	0.0%	-14.2%	0.0%	9.6%	-0.7%	-1.4%	0.0%	0.8%	-0.1%	-3.4%

2000-01

Budget item	Kavango		Omusati		Oshana		Keetmanshoop total		Totals	
	Alloc.	Com.	Alloc.	Com.	Alloc.	Com.	Alloc.	Com.	Alloc.	Com.
Travel and Subsistence Allowances	0.0%	-3.1%	0.0%	84.9%	0.0%	27.5%	-5.7%	25.7%	-1.8%	19.8%
Materials and Supplies	0.0%	1.3%	0.0%	-12.7%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	6.2%	0.0%	12.8%
Transport	0.0%	16.0%	0.0%	88.6%	0.0%	-154.8%	0.0%	44.3%	0.0%	19.0%
Utilities	0.0%	0.7%	0.0%	37.1%	0.0%	41.8%	0.0%	0.5%	0.0%	3.0%
Maintenance Expenses	0.0%	54.8%	0.0%	6.5%	-0.3%	37.5%	0.0%	-0.5%	0.0%	23.2%
Furniture and Office Equipment	0.0%	24.1%	0.0%	100.0%	-38.6%	100.0%	0.0%	22.8%	-4.5%	51.8%
Total	0.0%	3.0%	0.0%	-3.6%	-0.6%	-12.0%	-0.1%	4.3%	-0.1%	10.5%

Table A8 Do you reconcile budget allocations with amounts spent so far?

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Rural	Urban	Total
Yes	10.0%	68.2%	92.9%	90.0%	70.0%	57.1%	16.7%	75.0%	55.7%	75.0%	60.2%
No	90.0%	31.8%	7.1%	10.0%	30.0%	42.9%	83.3%	25.0%	44.3%	25.0%	39.8%

Table A9 Are you aware of remaining funds?

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Rural	Urban	Total
Yes	85.7%	73.9%	93.3%	80.0%	66.7%	70.0%	53.8%	100.0%	71.1%	87.5%	75.0%
No	14.3%	26.1%	6.7%	20.0%	33.3%	30.0%	46.2%	0.0%	28.9%	12.5%	25.0%

Table A10 Have learners received a receipt for the SDF payment?

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	Always	100.0%	71.4%		70.0%	93.3%	81.5%	77.8%	75.0%	79.1%
	Often	0.0%	8.6%		20.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.3%
	Never	0.0%	20.0%		10.0%	6.7%	18.5%	22.2%	25.0%	16.5%
urban	Always	100.0%		95.5%	100.0%	75.0%		100.0%	100.0%	95.6%
	Often	0.0%		0.0%	0.0%	25.0%		0.0%	0.0%	2.2%
	Never	0.0%		4.5%	0.0%	0.0%		0.0%	0.0%	2.2%
Total	Always	100.0%	71.4%	95.5%	81.3%	89.5%	81.5%	80.0%	87.5%	83.8%
	Often	0.0%	8.6%	0.0%	12.5%	5.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.8%
	Never	0.0%	20.0%	4.5%	6.3%	5.3%	18.5%	20.0%	12.5%	12.5%

Table A11 Frequency of external auditing, responses from principals, school board and teachers

Responses from Principals

	N*	every six months	annually	every two years	less than every two years	don't know
Hardap	9	11.1%	88.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Kavango	6	16.7%	33.3%	0.0%	16.7%	33.3%
Khomas	14	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Kunene	2	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Omaheke	6	16.7%	66.7%	0.0%	0.0%	16.7%
Omusati	3	33.3%	33.3%	0.0%	33.3%	0.0%
Oshana	1	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Private	8	37.5%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	50.0%
Total	66	36.4%	19.7%	3.0%	3.0%	37.9%
Rural	23	13.0%	56.5%	8.7%	8.7%	13.0%
Urban	22	4.5%	95.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Responses from School Board

	N*	every six months	annually	every two years	less than every two years	don't know
Hardap	8	0.0%	12.5%	0.0%	37.5%	50.0%
Kavango	38	2.6%	21.1%	0.0%	26.3%	50.0%
Khomas	8	0.0%	37.5%	0.0%	12.5%	50.0%
Kunene	12	8.3%	8.3%	0.0%	33.3%	50.0%
Omaheke	8	0.0%	12.5%	0.0%	37.5%	50.0%
Omusati	28	10.7%	3.6%	3.6%	32.1%	50.0%
Oshana	10	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	50.0%	50.0%
Private	8	0.0%	25.0%	0.0%	25.0%	50.0%
Total	120	4.2%	14.2%	0.8%	30.8%	50.0%
Rural	102	4.9%	10.8%	1.0%	33.3%	50.0%
Urban	18	0.0%	33.3%	0.0%	16.7%	50.0%

Responses from Teachers

	N*	every six months	annually	every two years	less than every two years	don't know
Hardap	21	4.8%	57.1%	0.0%	9.5%	28.6%
Kavango	37	8.1%	51.4%	0.0%	5.4%	35.1%
Khomas	28	3.6%	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	46.4%
Kunene	13	15.4%	30.8%	0.0%	0.0%	53.8%
Omaheke	15	0.0%	80.0%	0.0%	6.7%	13.3%
Omusati	37	18.9%	8.1%	2.7%	2.7%	67.6%
Oshana	26	34.6%	7.7%	0.0%	0.0%	57.7%
Private	13	7.7%	15.4%	7.7%	7.7%	61.5%
Total	190	12.6%	35.8%	1.1%	3.7%	46.8%
Rural	135	13.3%	30.4%	1.5%	3.7%	51.1%
Urban	55	10.9%	49.1%	0.0%	3.6%	36.4%

*Note: N refers to the number of cases / responses.

Table A12 Internal auditing in place at schools

	Responses by Teachers				Responses by School Board			Responses by Principals		
Region	**N**	**yes**	**no**	**don't know**	**N**	**yes**	**no**	**N**	**yes**	**no**
Hardap	21	61.9%	28.6%	9.5%	4	75%	25%	12	75.0%	25.0%
Kavango	40	62.5%	25.0%	12.5%	18	72%	28%	23	47.8%	52.2%
Khomas	30	63.3%	16.7%	20.0%	3	67%	33%	15	66.7%	33.3%
Kunene	18	61.1%	22.2%	16.7%	8	50%	50%	9	66.7%	33.3%
Omaheke	15	60.0%	40.0%	0.0%	3	100%	0%	10	100.0%	0.0%
Omusati	43	67.4%	23.3%	9.3%	18	72%	28%	22	59.1%	40.9%
Oshana	29	55.2%	31.0%	13.8%	3	100%	0%	13	53.8%	46.2%
Private	13	61.5%	7.7%	30.8%	4	50%	50%	7	42.9%	57.1%
Total	**209**	**62.2%**	**24.4%**	**13.4%**	**61**	**70%**	**30%**	**111**	**62.2%**	**37.8%**
Rural	153	61.4%	26.8%	11.8%	53	74%	26%	83	61.4%	38.6%
Urban	56	64.3%	17.9%	17.9%	8	50%	50%	28	64.3%	35.7%

Table A13 Rating of competence of internal auditors

Responses by teachers

	N	very competent	competent	hardly competent	don't know
Hardap	12	58.3%	33.3%	8.3%	0.0%
Kavango	30	10.0%	63.3%	6.7%	20.0%
Khomas	20	20.0%	50.0%	0.0%	30.0%
Kunene	11	18.2%	72.7%	0.0%	9.1%
Omaheke	11	9.1%	54.5%	9.1%	27.3%
Omusati	28	21.4%	46.4%	21.4%	10.7%
Oshana	17	29.4%	47.1%	5.9%	17.6%
Private	11	36.4%	18.2%	0.0%	45.5%
Total	140	22.9%	50.0%	7.9%	19.3%
Rural	99	20.2%	52.5%	11.1%	16.2%
Urban	41	29.3%	43.9%	0.0%	26.8%

…by the School Board

	N	very competent	competent	hardly competent	don't know
Hardap	3	33.3%	0.0%	33.3%	33.3%
Kavango	17	0.0%	23.5%	11.8%	64.7%
Khomas	3	0.0%	66.7%	0.0%	33.3%
Kunene	5	0.0%	80.0%	0.0%	20.0%
Omaheke	4	25.0%	25.0%	0.0%	50.0%
Omusati	16	12.5%	43.8%	25.0%	18.8%
Oshana	4	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	50.0%
Private	2	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	50.0%
Total	54	7.4%	38.9%	13.0%	40.7%
Rural	48	6.3%	37.5%	14.6%	41.7%
Urban	6	16.7%	50.0%	0.0%	33.3%

…by Principals

	very competent	competent	hardly competent
Hardap	12.5%	87.5%	0.0%
Kavango	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
Khomas	37.5%	50.0%	12.5%
Kunene	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
Omaheke	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
Omusati	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
Oshana	0.0%	83.3%	16.7%
Private	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
Total	6.6%	90.2%	3.3%
Rural	2.2%	95.6%	2.2%
Urban	18.8%	75.0%	6.3%

Table A14 Learner-to-teacher ratio by type of school, region and rural/urban

	Hardap		Kunene		Omusati		Oshana		Kavango		Khomas		Omaheke		Private		Total		
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Total
Primary	29	31	27	31	36		31		33			31	28	19	26	23	31	29	30
Secondary	23	30			26	28	28		44			29	22		13	29	25	29	28
Combined			30		35		32		28								32		32
Total	*27*	*31*	*28*	*31*	*35*	*28*	*31*		*32*			*30*	*25*	*19*	*17*	*27*	*31*	*29*	*30*
Regional Totals	29		29		34		31		32		30		22		23		30		

Table A15 Share of corresponding information about employment of teachers, HoD, Support staff and Principals

	Teachers				HoD			Support staff			Principal
	RED-School Inspector	RED-Principal	Inspector-Principal	Teacher - Principal	RED-School Inspector	RED-Principal	Inspector-Principal	RED-School Inspector	RED-Principal	Inspector -Principal	RED-School Inspector
Share of corresponding information	36.54%	13.16%	17.07%	52.2%	92.16%	84.93%	85.19%	74.47%	72.00%	60.71%	94.64%

Note: RED Regional Education Director
HoD Head of Department

The table has to be read like this: RED-School Inspector: This column compares the information received from the RED with the information provided by the School Inspector about the number of teachers employed at a school. In this case, the data corresponds in 36.5% of all cases.

Table A16 Number of teachers passed away during the first half of 2003

Based on information provided by teachers

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Total	Total number of teachers	Share of total teachers
rural	0	9		1	0	4	4	0	18	782	2.30%
urban	1		2		0		0	0	3	765	0.39%
Total	1	9	2	1	0	4	4	0	21	1,547	1.36%

Based on information provided by principals

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Total	Total number of teachers	Share of total teachers
rural	0	9		1	0	2	3	0	15	782	1.92%
urban	1		1	0	0		0	0	2	765	0.26%
Total	1	9	1	1	0	2	3	0	17	1,547	1.10%

Table A17 Number of teachers that left school during the first half of 2003

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Total	Total number of teachers	Share of total teachers
rural	8	6		3	9	9	7	3	45	782	5.75%
urban	7		16	0	1		1	1	26	765	3.40%
Total	15	6	16	3	10	9	8	4	71	1,547	4.59%

Table A18 Qualification of teachers by region and rural and urban schools

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Total
rural	Less than BETD	45.5%	32.5%		21.4%	14.3%	25.6%	38.5%	20.0%	29.4%
	BETD	27.3%	62.5%		57.1%	35.7%	53.5%	42.3%	40.0%	50.3%
	higher diploma	9.1%	5.0%		7.1%	21.4%	7.0%	19.2%	0.0%	9.8%
	bachelor degree	18.2%	0.0%		7.1%	21.4%	2.3%	0.0%	40.0%	5.9%
	other	0.0%	0.0%		7.1%	7.1%	11.6%	0.0%	0.0%	4.6%
urban	Less than BETD	20.0%		10.0%	0.0%	25.0%		0.0%	37.5%	15.5%
	BETD	20.0%		3.3%	100.0%	50.0%		50.0%	0.0%	17.2%
	higher diploma	20.0%		33.3%	0.0%	0.0%		50.0%	25.0%	25.9%
	bachelor degree	30.0%		43.3%	0.0%	25.0%		0.0%	25.0%	32.8%
	other	10.0%		10.0%	0.0%	0.0%		0.0%	12.5%	8.6%
Total	Less than BETD	33.3%	32.5%	10.0%	16.7%	16.7%	25.6%	35.7%	30.8%	25.6%
	BETD	23.8%	62.5%	3.3%	66.7%	38.9%	53.5%	42.9%	15.4%	41.2%
	higher diploma	14.3%	5.0%	33.3%	5.6%	16.7%	7.0%	21.4%	15.4%	14.2%
	bachelor degree	23.8%	0.0%	43.3%	5.6%	22.2%	2.3%	0.0%	30.8%	13.3%
	other	4.8%	0.0%	10.0%	5.6%	5.6%	11.6%	0.0%	7.7%	5.7%

Table A19 Satisfaction with working conditions – responses from teachers

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
Rural	yes	45.5%	70.0%		71.4%	71.4%	55.8%	70.4%	60.0%	64.3%
	no	18.2%	20.0%		21.4%	14.3%	27.9%	25.9%	40.0%	23.4%
	somehow	36.4%	10.0%		7.1%	14.3%	16.3%	3.7%	0.0%	12.3%
urban	yes	80.0%		63.3%	75.0%	75.0%		50.0%	87.5%	70.7%
	no	10.0%		20.0%	0.0%	25.0%		0.0%	0.0%	13.8%
	somehow	10.0%		16.7%	25.0%	0.0%		50.0%	12.5%	15.5%
Total	yes	61.9%	70.0%	63.3%	72.2%	72.2%	55.8%	69.0%	76.9%	66.0%
	no	14.3%	20.0%	20.0%	16.7%	16.7%	27.9%	24.1%	15.4%	20.8%
	somehow	23.8%	10.0%	16.7%	11.1%	11.1%	16.3%	6.9%	7.7%	13.2%

Satisfaction with working conditions – responses from principals

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	yes	71.4%	50.0%		60.0%	71.4%	54.5%	53.8%	66.7%	57.0%
	no	14.3%	37.5%		30.0%	14.3%	18.2%	15.4%	0.0%	23.3%
	somehow	14.3%	12.5%		10.0%	14.3%	27.3%	30.8%	33.3%	19.8%
urban	yes	80.0%		60.0%	100.0%	33.3%		0.0%	66.7%	60.7%
	no	0.0%		33.3%	0.0%	66.7%		100.0%	33.3%	32.1%
	somehow	20.0%		6.7%	0.0%	0.0%		0.0%	0.0%	7.1%
Total	yes	75.0%	50.0%	60.0%	63.6%	60.0%	54.5%	50.0%	66.7%	57.9%
	no	8.3%	37.5%	33.3%	27.3%	30.0%	18.2%	21.4%	16.7%	25.4%
	somehow	16.7%	12.5%	6.7%	9.1%	10.0%	27.3%	28.6%	16.7%	16.7%

Table A20 Rating of the workload

– by teachers

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	too high	54.5%	50.0%		64.3%	57.1%	39.5%	48.1%	80.0%	50.0%
	just right	36.4%	45.0%		35.7%	42.9%	58.1%	51.9%	20.0%	47.4%
	could be more	9.1%	5.0%		0.0%	0.0%	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	2.6%
urban	too high	40.0%		56.7%	25.0%	0.0%		100.0%	50.0%	48.3%
	just right	60.0%		43.3%	50.0%	100.0%		0.0%	50.0%	50.0%
	could be more	0.0%		0.0%	25.0%	0.0%		0.0%	0.0%	1.7%
Total	too high	47.6%	50.0%	56.7%	55.6%	44.4%	39.5%	51.7%	61.5%	49.5%
	just right	47.6%	45.0%	43.3%	38.9%	55.6%	58.1%	48.3%	38.5%	48.1%
	could be more	4.8%	5.0%	0.0%	5.6%	0.0%	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	2.4%

Rating of the workload – by principals

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	too high	71.4%	66.7%		80.0%	57.1%	45.5%	76.9%	100.0%	65.1%
	just right	28.6%	29.2%		20.0%	42.9%	54.5%	23.1%	0.0%	33.7%
	could be more	0.0%	4.2%		0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.2%
urban	too high	60.0%		73.3%	0.0%	100.0%		0.0%	33.3%	64.3%
	just right	40.0%		26.7%	100.0%	0.0%		100.0%	66.7%	35.7%
Total	too high	66.7%	66.7%	73.3%	72.7%	70.0%	45.5%	71.4%	66.7%	64.9%
	just right	33.3%	29.2%	26.7%	27.3%	30.0%	54.5%	28.6%	33.3%	34.2%
	could be more	0.0%	4.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%

Table A21 Correlation between qualification and rating of workload

	N	too high	just right	could be more
Less than BETD	54	40.7%	53.7%	5.6%
BETD	87	48.3%	49.4%	2.3%
higher diploma	30	50.0%	50.0%	0.0%
bachelor degree	28	64.3%	35.7%	0.0%
Other	12	66.7%	33.3%	0.0%
Total	211	49.8%	47.9%	2.4%

Table A22 Share of teachers absent for at least one day during June 2003 due to…

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Total
rural	Official duties	9.1%	59.0%		64.3%	18.8%	37.5%	37.0%	40.0%	41.4%
	Personal matters	9.1%	38.5%		21.4%	0.0%	19.5%	15.4%	25.0%	21.2%
urban	Official duties	0.0%		13.3%	50.0%	0.0%		50.0%	42.9%	17.5%
	Personal matters	10.0%		10.0%	0.0%	0.0%		50.0%	25.0%	12.1%
Total	Official duties	4.8%	59.0%	13.3%	61.1%	15.0%	37.5%	37.9%	41.7%	34.9%
	Personal matters	9.5%	38.5%	10.0%	16.7%	0.0%	19.5%	17.9%	25.0%	18.7%

Table A23 Share of teachers that were absent the previous week – based on students' responses

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	17.50%	12.84%		16.96%	7.78%	10.62%	11.91%	0.00%	11.43%
urban	2.38%		12.90%	0.00%	0.00%		0.00%	5.97%	8.47%
Total	8.43%	12.84%	12.90%	14.54%	6.14%	10.62%	10.72%	3.41%	10.54%

Table A24 Average number of total working days – work related and private – every principal was absent during June 2003

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	2.14	3.21		2.20	1.14	1.45	3.23	1.00	2.31
urban	1.00		1.20	2.00	1.67		1.00	0.33	1.14
Total	1.67	3.21	1.20	2.18	1.30	1.45	3.07	0.67	

...every teacher was absent

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	0.36	3.16		2.86	0.29	1.88	1.31	1.80	1.93
urban	0.10		0.60	2.75	0.00		2.50	1.86	0.84
Total	0.24	3.16	0.60	2.83	0.22	1.88	1.39	1.83	

Table A25 Share of learners who come tired to school

Responses by teachers

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	14.55	20.68		12.15	5.19	16.50	7.12	22.00	14.38
urban	23.60		26.52	15.67	0.75		7.50	3.71	19.12
Total	18.86	20.68	26.52	12.81	4.30	16.50	7.14	11.33	15.55

Responses by principals

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	8.00	25.28		0.56	8.57	25.05	12.15	0.00	16.70
urban	33.75		21.54	5.00	25.00		12.00	2.00	21.29
Total	17.36	25.28	21.54	1.00	13.50	25.05	12.14	0.80	17.73

Responses by learners

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	30.50	16.63		8.92	5.69	6.19	6.11	0.00	10.94
urban	5.00		16.30	11.75	1.75		0.00	6.50	10.72
Total	19.17	16.63	16.30	10.05	4.90	6.19	5.52	3.71	10.88

Table A26 Share of learners who come hungry to school

Responses by teachers

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	37.64	29.24		54.23	7.81	17.23	9.63	40.00	23.36
urban	25.40		24.58	34.00	16.67		5.00	3.00	21.22
Total	31.81	29.24	24.58	49.47	9.21	17.23	9.31	18.42	22.82

Responses by principals

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	35.43	44.74		50.56	11.67	32.05	17.09	0.00	33.27
urban	46.25		28.86	40.00	54.00		5.00	0.00	31.84
Total	39.36	44.74	28.86	49.50	25.78	32.05	16.08	0.00	32.93

Responses by learners

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	21.70	41.69		81.50	15.06	4.58	3.95	0.00	23.82
urban	18.25		7.11	16.00	4.50		42.50	18.14	13.26
Total	20.17	41.69	7.11	54.53	12.95	4.58	7.45	9.77	20.90

Table A27 Share of learners absent

Responses by teachers

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	9.76%	9.92%		3.93%	9.36%	5.61%	2.14%	3.68%	6.47%
urban	2.82%		2.83%	10.88%	5.64%		0.17%	3.51%	3.76%
Total	6.10%	9.92%	2.83%	5.56%	8.57%	5.61%	2.00%	3.58%	5.81%

Responses by principals

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	6.74%	11.27%		10.46%	6.95%	5.28%	2.33%	4.01%	7.31%
urban	0.97%		3.58%	36.19%	5.80%		0.00%	4.69%	6.79%
Total	6.02%	11.27%	3.58%	13.32%	6.61%	5.28%	2.07%	4.28%	7.24%

Responses by learners

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	6.97%	9.78%		1.95%	12.19%	2.54%	4.23%	6.49%	6.68%
urban	7.99%		2.00%	9.00%	10.99%		0.00%	8.65%	5.36%
Total	7.45%	9.78%	2.00%	4.85%	11.95%	2.54%	4.02%	7.72%	6.27%

Table A28 Is the school satisfactorily equipped?

…Responses from learners

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	yes	30.0%	22.2%		0.0%	12.5%	11.1%	40.0%	16.7%	19.7%
	no	70.0%	77.8%		100.0%	87.5%	88.9%	60.0%	83.3%	80.3%
urban	yes	50.0%		66.7%	37.5%	25.0%		0.0%	87.5%	57.9%
	no	50.0%		33.3%	62.5%	75.0%		100.0%	12.5%	42.1%
Total	yes	38.9%	22.2%	66.7%	15.0%	15.0%	11.1%	36.4%	57.1%	31.5%
	no	61.1%	77.8%	33.3%	85.0%	85.0%	88.9%	63.6%	42.9%	68.5%

…Responses from teachers

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	yes	18.2%	12.5%		21.4%	18.8%	7.5%	14.8%	40.0%	14.4%
	no	81.8%	87.5%		78.6%	81.3%	92.5%	85.2%	60.0%	85.6%
urban	yes	40.0%		50.0%	25.0%	0.0%		0.0%	87.5%	46.6%
	no	60.0%		50.0%	75.0%	100.0%		100.0%	12.5%	53.4%
Total	yes	28.6%	12.5%	50.0%	22.2%	15.0%	7.5%	13.8%	69.2%	23.2%
	no	71.4%	87.5%	50.0%	77.8%	85.0%	92.5%	86.2%	30.8%	76.8%

…Responses from principals

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	yes	28.6%	12.5%		55.6%	55.6%	31.8%	8.3%	33.3%	27.9%
	no	71.4%	87.5%		44.4%	44.4%	68.2%	91.7%	66.7%	72.1%
urban	yes	40.0%		46.7%	0.0%	0.0%		0.0%	100.0%	46.4%
	no	60.0%		53.3%	100.0%	100.0%		100.0%	0.0%	53.6%
Total	yes	33.3%	12.5%	46.7%	45.5%	50.0%	31.8%	7.7%	71.4%	32.5%
	no	66.7%	87.5%	53.3%	54.5%	50.0%	68.2%	92.3%	28.6%	67.5%

Table A29 School facilities compared to last year

Responses from learners

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	improved	10.0%	42.9%		75.0%	57.1%	55.6%	52.6%	16.7%	48.0%
	the same	50.0%	45.7%		25.0%	35.7%	40.7%	47.4%	66.7%	43.1%
	deteriorated	40.0%	11.4%		0.0%	7.1%	3.7%	0.0%	16.7%	8.9%
urban	improved	25.0%		46.4%	50.0%	50.0%		0.0%	85.7%	47.4%
	the same	75.0%		46.4%	50.0%	25.0%		100.0%	14.3%	47.4%
	deteriorated	0.0%		7.1%	0.0%	25.0%		0.0%	0.0%	5.3%
Total	improved	16.7%	42.9%	46.4%	65.0%	55.6%	55.6%	47.6%	53.8%	47.8%
	the same	61.1%	45.7%	46.4%	35.0%	33.3%	40.7%	52.4%	38.5%	44.4%
	deteriorated	22.2%	11.4%	7.1%	0.0%	11.1%	3.7%	0.0%	7.7%	7.8%

…from principals

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	improved	0.0%	34.8%		66.7%	42.9%	25.0%	16.7%	33.3%	31.6%
	the same	100.0%	56.5%		33.3%	42.9%	75.0%	58.3%	66.7%	60.8%
	deteriorated	0.0%	8.7%		0.0%	14.3%	0.0%	25.0%	0.0%	7.6%
urban	improved	40.0%		57.1%	0.0%	100.0%		0.0%	50.0%	48.1%
	the same	60.0%		28.6%	100.0%	0.0%		0.0%	25.0%	37.0%
	deteriorated	0.0%		14.3%	0.0%	0.0%		100.0%	25.0%	14.8%
Total	improved	20.0%	34.8%	57.1%	54.5%	50.0%	25.0%	15.4%	42.9%	35.8%
	the same	80.0%	56.5%	28.6%	45.5%	37.5%	75.0%	53.8%	42.9%	54.7%
	deteriorated	0.0%	8.7%	14.3%	0.0%	12.5%	0.0%	30.8%	14.3%	9.4%

…from teachers

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	improved	44.4%	43.6%		57.1%	25.0%	50.0%	44.4%	75.0%	45.6%
	the same	44.4%	38.5%		42.9%	75.0%	44.7%	51.9%	25.0%	46.9%
	deteriorated	11.1%	17.9%		0.0%	0.0%	5.3%	3.7%	0.0%	7.5%
urban	improved	20.0%		31.0%	25.0%	0.0%		0.0%	62.5%	30.9%
	the same	70.0%		55.2%	75.0%	100.0%		50.0%	37.5%	58.2%
	deteriorated	10.0%		13.8%	0.0%	0.0%		50.0%	0.0%	10.9%
Total	improved	31.6%	43.6%	31.0%	50.0%	22.2%	50.0%	41.4%	66.7%	41.6%
	the same	57.9%	38.5%	55.2%	50.0%	77.8%	44.7%	51.7%	33.3%	50.0%
	deteriorated	10.5%	17.9%	13.8%	0.0%	0.0%	5.3%	6.9%	0.0%	8.4%

Table A30 Comparison of the budget allocation with the value of textbooks ordered and received

		Hardap		Kunene		Kavango		Khomas	
		Textbooks	Stationery	Textbooks	Stationery	Textbooks	Stationery	Textbooks	Stationery
2002/03	Ordered as % of allocation	102.5%	157.0%	95.3%	108.0%	34.7%		99.6%	98.1%
	Received as % of allocation	65.3%		88.7%	108.4%	82.8%		91.5%	
	Received as % of ordered	63.7%		93.1%	100.4%	238.5%		102.7%	
2001/02	Ordered as % of allocation	92.9%		99.6%	102.8%	38.3%		113.8%	89.1%
	Received as % of allocation	66.4%		94.2%	94.4%	80.5%			
	Received as % of ordered	71.5%		94.6%	91.8%	210.0%			
2000/01	Ordered as % of allocation	89.8%	149.5%	99.5%	100.1%	37.8%		97.6%	94.9%
	Received as % of allocation		0.0%	102.0%	97.1%	66.1%			
	Received as % of ordered		0.0%	102.5%	97.1%	174.9%			

Table A31 Average number of textbooks per learner – by region and rural-urban

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Total Average
Rural	English	0.851	0.663		0.516	0.817	0.609	0.495	0.839	0.645
	Mathematics	0.734	0.505		0.766	0.542	0.564	0.494	0.878	0.581
Urban	English	0.746		0.670	0.506	0.303		0.924		0.650
	Mathematics	0.651		0.598	0.597	0.326		0.379		0.560
Total per region	English	0.808	0.663	0.670	0.514	0.663	0.609	0.556	0.839	0.646
	Mathematics	0.699	0.505	0.598	0.732	0.477	0.564	0.478	0.878	0.576

Availability of textbooks per learner compared to the national average

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private
Rural	English	1.319	1.028		0.800	1.266	0.944	0.766	1.301
	Mathematics	1.263	0.869		1.318	0.932	0.971	0.851	1.511
Urban	English	1.149		1.032	0.780	0.467		1.422	
	Mathematics	1.162		1.068	1.066	0.583		0.676	
Total per region	English	1.250	1.026	1.037	0.796	1.026	0.942	0.860	1.299
	Mathematics	1.214	0.877	1.039	1.271	0.828	0.979	0.830	1.525

Note: The figures indicate how much more or how much fewer textbooks than the national average are available in a region.
For instance, 1.319 for English textbooks in the Hardap region indicates that learners in this region have 1.319 times more textbooks than the national average.
0.8 for English textbooks in the Kavango region means that learners in this region have less textbooks than the national average, namely only 0.8 times the national average.

Table A32 Enough textbooks available – responses by learners

Mathematics textbooks

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	Yes	66.7%	42.9%		16.7%	46.7%	40.7%	40.0%	100.0%	44.4%
	No	33.3%	57.1%		83.3%	53.3%	59.3%	60.0%	0.0%	55.6%
urban	Yes	75.0%		81.5%	57.1%	50.0%		50.0%	80.0%	73.6%
	No	25.0%		18.5%	42.9%	50.0%		50.0%	20.0%	26.4%
Total	Yes	70.6%	42.9%	81.5%	31.6%	47.4%	40.7%	40.9%	90.9%	53.1%
	No	29.4%	57.1%	18.5%	68.4%	52.6%	59.3%	59.1%	9.1%	46.9%

English textbooks

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	Yes	80.0%	53.1%		16.7%	78.6%	61.5%	47.4%	66.7%	56.3%
	No	20.0%	46.9%		83.3%	21.4%	38.5%	52.6%	33.3%	43.7%
urban	Yes	100.0%		84.0%	62.5%	100.0%		100.0%	100.0%	86.5%
	No	0.0%		16.0%	37.5%	0.0%		0.0%	0.0%	13.5%
Total	Yes	88.9%	53.1%	84.0%	35.0%	83.3%	61.5%	52.4%	81.8%	65.5%
	No	11.1%	46.9%	16.0%	65.0%	16.7%	38.5%	47.6%	18.2%	34.5%

Table A33 Number of schools per region with more than 1 and with less than 0.5 textbooks per learner

	Hardap		Kavango		Khomas		Kunene		Omaheke		Omusati		Oshana		Private		Total	
English	>1	<0.5	>1	<0.5	>1	<0.5	>1	<0.5	>1	<0.5	>1	<0.5	>1	<0.5	>1	<0.5	>1	<0.5
Rural	2	2	4	11				3	2	2	3	9		6	1	1	12	34
Urban	1	2			2	7		1		3			1				4	13
Total	3	4	4	11	2	7	0	4	2	5	3	9	1	6	1	1	16	47
Share of total schools	25.0%	33.3%	16.0%	44.0%	13.3%	46.7%	0.0%	36.4%	20.0%	50.0%	13.6%	40.9%	7.1%	42.9%	14.3%	14.3%	13.8%	40.5%
Mathematics																		
Rural	1	2	1	12			1	2		3	1	9		6	1	1	5	35
Urban		2			1	5		1		3				2			1	13
Total	1	4	1	12	1	5	1	3	0	6	1	9	0	8	1	1	6	48
Share of total schools	8.3%	33.3%	4.0%	48.0%	6.7%	33.3%	9.1%	27.3%	0.0%	60.0%	4.5%	40.9%	0.0%	57.1%	14.3%	14.3%	5.2%	41.4%

Explanation: >1 indicates more than one textbook per learner

<0.5 indicates less than half a textbook per learner

Table A34 Are textbooks replaced?

Responses by learners

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	Yes	70.0%	83.3%		41.7%	25.0%	77.8%	84.2%	66.7%	69.0%
	No	20.0%	8.3%		41.7%	6.3%	7.4%	5.3%	33.3%	12.7%
	Some	0.0%	5.6%		8.3%	68.8%	7.4%	5.3%	0.0%	13.5%
	Don't know	10.0%	2.8%		8.3%	0.0%	7.4%	5.3%	0.0%	4.8%
urban	Yes	75.0%		78.6%	75.0%	50.0%		100.0%	100.0%	78.6%
	No	0.0%		7.1%	12.5%	0.0%		0.0%	0.0%	5.4%
	Some	12.5%		14.3%	0.0%	50.0%		0.0%	0.0%	12.5%
	Don't know	12.5%		0.0%	12.5%	0.0%		0.0%	0.0%	3.6%
Total	Yes	72.2%	83.3%	78.6%	55.0%	30.0%	77.8%	85.7%	83.3%	72.0%
	No	11.1%	8.3%	7.1%	30.0%	5.0%	7.4%	4.8%	16.7%	10.4%
	Some	5.6%	5.6%	14.3%	5.0%	65.0%	7.4%	4.8%	0.0%	13.2%
	Don't know	11.1%	2.8%	0.0%	10.0%	0.0%	7.4%	4.8%	0.0%	4.4%

… by principals

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	24.40	14.63		31.67	40.00	68.75	36.50	50.00	37.42
urban	43.80		84.08	5.00	10.00		1.00	99.67	64.50
Total	34.10	14.63	84.08	26.82	37.00	68.75	33.77	79.80	

… by teachers

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	36.45	24.72		16.33	55.00	37.09	25.21	30.00	32.68
urban	47.00		41.57	10.00	36.67		75.00	52.50	44.05
Total	41.48	24.72	41.57	15.85	52.11	37.09	31.44	36.43	

Table A35 Facilities and equipment available at schools

Average number of laboratories

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	0.64	0.21		0.08	0.36	0.09	0.31	0.60	0.24
urban	0.80		0.67	0.25	0.00		0.00	0.43	0.56
Total	0.71	0.21	0.67	0.12	0.28	0.09	0.29	0.50	0.33

Average number of libraries

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	0.73	0.44		0.86	1.00	0.56	0.63	1.00	0.63
urban	1.00		0.93	1.00	0.75		1.00	1.25	0.98
Total	0.86	0.44	0.93	0.89	0.94	0.56	0.66	1.15	0.73

Average number of sports grounds

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	0.30	0.82		1.29	1.64	0.56	0.35	2.00	0.79
urban	0.70		0.80	1.75	1.50		0.50	0.13	0.79
Total	0.50	0.82	0.80	1.39	1.61	0.56	0.36	0.85	0.79

Average number of computers for classes

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	0.00	0.08		0.50	0.07	0.00	0.16	0.20	0.11
urban	11.20		4.28	0.00	0.25		0.00	4.25	4.75
Total	5.60	0.08	4.28	0.39	0.11	0.00	0.15	2.69	1.39

Average number of photocopiers

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	1.00	0.21		0.57	1.43	0.49	0.32	1.20	0.54
urban	1.80		2.14	1.50	1.00		1.00	1.38	1.81
Total	1.38	0.21	2.14	0.78	1.33	0.49	0.37	1.31	0.89

Average number of overhead projectors

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	1.09	0.71		0.00	1.57	0.05	0.08	0.80	0.46
urban	6.80		5.62	0.75	0.50		0.00	2.50	4.43
Total	3.81	0.71	5.62	0.17	1.33	0.05	0.08	1.85	1.52

Table A36 Regular stock taking

Responses by teachers

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	Yes	90.9%	90.0%		85.7%	93.3%	92.5%	96.3%	100.0%	92.1%
	No	9.1%	10.0%		14.3%	6.7%	7.5%	3.7%	0.0%	7.9%
urban	Yes	80.0%		80.0%	100.0%	0.0%		100.0%	87.5%	80.4%
	No	20.0%		20.0%	0.0%	100.0%		0.0%	12.5%	19.6%
Total	Yes	85.7%	90.0%	80.0%	88.9%	82.4%	92.5%	96.6%	91.7%	88.9%
	No	14.3%	10.0%	20.0%	11.1%	17.6%	7.5%	3.4%	8.3%	11.1%

… by principals

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	Yes	100.0%	91.7%		88.9%	100.0%	90.9%	100.0%	100.0%	94.2%
	No	0.0%	8.3%		11.1%	0.0%	9.1%	0.0%	0.0%	5.8%
urban	Yes	100.0%		80.0%	100.0%	100.0%		100.0%	100.0%	89.3%
	No	0.0%		20.0%	0.0%	0.0%		0.0%	0.0%	10.7%
Total	Yes	100.0%	91.7%	80.0%	90.9%	100.0%	90.9%	100.0%	100.0%	93.0%
	No	0.0%	8.3%	20.0%	9.1%	0.0%	9.1%	0.0%	0.0%	7.0%

Table A37 Availability of an inventory

Responses by teachers

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	Yes	90.9%	77.5%		84.6%	100.0%	47.2%	80.8%	100.0%	75.3%
	No	9.1%	22.5%		15.4%	0.0%	52.8%	19.2%	0.0%	24.7%
urban	Yes	100.0%		88.9%	100.0%	100.0%		100.0%	57.1%	88.7%
	No	0.0%		11.1%	0.0%	0.0%		0.0%	42.9%	11.3%
Total	Yes	95.2%	77.5%	88.9%	88.2%	100.0%	47.2%	82.1%	72.7%	78.9%
	No	4.8%	22.5%	11.1%	11.8%	0.0%	52.8%	17.9%	27.3%	21.1%

… by principals

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Average
rural	Yes	85.7%	91.7%		88.9%	100.0%	68.2%	91.7%	66.7%	84.7%
	No	14.3%	8.3%		11.1%	0.0%	31.8%	8.3%	33.3%	15.3%
urban	Yes	100.0%		93.3%	100.0%	0.0%		100.0%	75.0%	89.3%
	No	0.0%		6.7%	0.0%	100.0%		0.0%	25.0%	10.7%
Total	Yes	91.7%	91.7%	93.3%	90.9%	88.9%	68.2%	92.3%	71.4%	85.8%
	No	8.3%	8.3%	6.7%	9.1%	11.1%	31.8%	7.7%	28.6%	14.2%

Table A38 Satisfaction with school management

Responses by school inspectors

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Average
excellent	9.1%	5.9%	30.8%	11.1%	27.3%	4.5%	0.0%	12.9%
good	72.7%	35.3%	15.4%	22.2%	18.2%	31.8%	100.0%	34.1%
satisfactory	9.1%	41.2%	30.8%	44.4%	27.3%	36.4%	0.0%	31.8%
hardly satisfactory	0.0%	17.6%	23.1%	22.2%	27.3%	18.2%	0.0%	17.6%
very poor	9.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	9.1%	0.0%	3.5%

… by Regional Education Directors

	Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Average
excellent	7.7%	4.2%	5.6%	10.0%	0.0%	4.5%	5.2%
good	30.8%	12.5%	16.7%	30.0%	40.0%	45.5%	27.8%
satisfactory	46.2%	45.8%	33.3%	30.0%	40.0%	40.9%	40.2%
hardly satisfactory	7.7%	25.0%	44.4%	10.0%	20.0%	4.5%	19.6%
very poor	7.7%	12.5%	0.0%	20.0%	0.0%	4.5%	7.2%

Note: The figures indicate the share of schools that have received the respective rating from the interviewee.

Table A39 Regional comparison of various indicators

		Hardap	Kavango	Khomas	Kunene	Omaheke	Omusati	Oshana	Private	Total
Rural	English textbooks p learner	0.9	0.7		0.5	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.6
	Maths textbooks p learner	0.7	0.5		0.8	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.6
	Photocopier p. school	1.0	0.2		0.6	1.4	0.5	0.3	1.2	0.5
	Laboratories p. school	0.6	0.2		0.1	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.2
	Libraries p. school	0.7	0.4		0.9	1.0	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.6
	Computers p. school	0.0	0.1		0.5	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1
	Overhead Projector p. school	1.1	0.7		0.0	1.6	0.0	0.1	0.8	0.5
	Teacher qualification[a]	2.0	1.7		2.3	2.8	2.3	1.8	2.6	2.1
	Principal qualification[a]	3.4	2.8		2.7	3.3	2.5	1.8	4.0	2.7
	Learner-Teacher Ratio	27.4	32.0		27.2	25.1	34.7	31.3	17.4	30.8
	School Development Fund p. learner	96	36		40	161	29	37	684	83
	Repetition rate	8.6%	17.3%		12.0%	15.4%	18.8%	11.6%		15.4%
	Dropout rates	1.0%	2.4%		5.6%	4.1%	1.3%	2.6%		2.5%
	Grade 10 promotion									44.6%
Urban	English textbooks p learner	0.7		0.7	0.5	0.3		0.9		0.6
	Maths textbooks p learner	0.7		0.6	0.6	0.3		0.4		0.6
	Photocopier p. school	1.8		2.1	1.5	1.0		1.0	1.4	1.8
	Laboratories p. school	0.8		0.7	0.3	0.0		0.0	0.4	0.6
	Libraries p. school	1.0		0.9	1.0	0.8		1.0	1.3	1.0
	Computers p. school	11.2		4.3	0.0	0.3		0.0	4.3	4.8
	Overhead Projector p. school	6.8		5.6	0.8	0.5		0.0	2.5	4.4
	Teacher qualification[a]	3		3.5	2	2.25		2.5	2.9	3.1
	Principal qualification[a]	3.6		3.9	4.0	2.7		3.0	3.0	3.6
	Learner-Teacher Ratio	31.1		30.7	30.9	19.2		31.5		30.0
	School Development Fund p. learner	175		463	43	138		90	428	320
	Repetition rate	11.3%		8.9%	16.3%	17.0%		4.5%		10.5%
	Dropout rates	1.3%		1.8%	7.3%	2.2%		1.6%		2.2%
	Grade 10 promotion									64.9
Total	English textbooks p learner	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.6
	Maths textbooks p learner	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.6
	Photocopier p. school	1.4	0.2	2.1	0.8	1.3	0.5	0.4	1.3	0.9
	Laboratories p. school	0.7	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.3
	Libraries p. school	0.9	0.4	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.2	0.7
	Computers p. school	5.6	0.1	4.3	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.1	2.7	1.4
	Overhead Projector p. school	3.8	0.7	5.6	0.2	1.3	0.0	0.1	1.8	1.5
	Teacher qualification[a]	2.5	1.7	3.5	2.2	2.7	2.3	1.9	2.8	2.4
	Principal qualification[a]	3.5	2.8	3.9	2.8	3.1	2.5	1.9	3.5	
	Learner-Teacher Ratio	29.4	32.0	30.7	29.3	21.9	34.7	31.4	17.4	30.0
	School Development Fund p. learner	136	36	463	41	149	29	64	556	201
	Repetition rate	9.7%	17.3%	8.9%	12.8%	15.9%	18.8%	10.6%	2.8%	13.9%
	Dropout rates	1.1%	2.4%	1.8%	5.9%	3.5%	1.3%	2.5%	0.0%	2.3%
	Grade 10 promotion									50.4

Notes: *a. Qualification values in the table are mean averages of the values given to the different qualifications, where: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 stand for Less than BETD, BETD, Higher Education Diploma, Bachelor Degree, Masters Degree and Others respectively.*